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UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
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The Catholic University of America Press

ANNOUNCES THE PUBLICATION OF

## A Lexicon of St. Thomas

*based on the Summa Theologica and selected  
passages from his other works.*



By **ROY J. DEFERRARI**

*of the Catholic University of America*

and

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## Table of Contents

	PAGE
ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS OF THE CATHOLIC COLLEGE <i>Edward V. Stanford, O.S.A.</i>	555
CURRICULUM ANALYSIS FOR NURSING EDUCATION <i>Loretta Heidgerken</i>	568
BUILDING AND UTILIZING THE EXAMINATION . . . <i>V. E. Leichty</i>	576
THE NEED FOR LEADERSHIP EDUCATION IN TEACHER TRAIN- ING . . . . . <i>James R. Irwin</i>	588
THE PRIESTHOOD OF CHRIST AS EMBODIED IN THE LITURGY <i>A Sister of St. Joseph</i>	595
THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ABSTRACTS . . . . .	601
COLLEGE AND SECONDARY SCHOOL NOTES . . . . .	604
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL NOTES . . . . .	607
NEWS FROM THE FIELD . . . . .	612
BOOK REVIEWS . . . . .	618
BOOKS RECEIVED . . . . .	622

# Administrative Problems of the Catholic College

By EDWARD V. STANFORD, O.S.A.

*Augustinian College, Catholic University of America*

EDITOR'S NOTE: The literature on the Catholic college is extremely meager. This REVIEW welcomes, therefore, the opportunity to publish a series of articles on Administrative Problems of the Catholic College. The author, the Very Rev. Edward V. Stanford, is at present Rector of the Augustinian College at the Catholic University of America. He was, however, on the staff of Villanova College for twenty-five years, and its President for twelve years. Moreover, through his activities with various educational agencies, civilian and governmental, he has had an unusual opportunity to acquire familiarity with college problems throughout the country. It is on this personal experience, rather than on authorities, that Father Stanford bases the opinions expressed in these articles, the first two of which appear in this issue.

## Catholic College Administration

**T**HERE are certain principles and problems which are common to college administration in our country whether under Catholic or non-Catholic auspices, but the application of these common principles and the solution of these common problems may well differ from college to college. This is particularly true in the case of Catholic colleges.

First of all there is a distinctive purpose in the Catholic college, which, briefly stated, is to mold men and women after the example of Christ so that they will be able to serve well their fellowmen, their country and their God and thus attain their eternal destiny.

The N.E.C.A. College and University Department Report, "The Liberal College in a Democracy" (1946), has defined this purpose more specifically. The statement on purpose therein recognizes both an "ultimate" and a "proximate" purpose.

The proximate purpose of the Catholic college of liberal arts and sciences is "to develop individual ability to attain truth, to choose the good, to appreciate the beautiful, to strengthen bodily and mental health and to maintain temporal well-being by economic preparedness." (*Ibid.*, p. 16.)

"The ultimate purpose of the Catholic college of liberal arts and sciences is, with the aid of God's grace, to bring souls closer to God and to assist them in fulfilling the purpose of their creation." (*Ibid.*, p. 17.)

"Thus education of the individual for his proper place in divine and human society is both the ultimate and proximate reason for the colleges' existence."

This "ultimate" purpose is distinctive of the Catholic college (also, we trust, it applies to other church-related colleges) and, therefore, must color the application of even the principles and problems which are common to all colleges.

In the second place there are certain distinctive features in the set-up of most Catholic colleges which tend to complicate the problems of administration over and above what are to be found in the average non-Catholic college.

What are these complicating features? Briefly they may be reduced to two:

1. For the most part Catholic colleges are owned, operated and controlled by Religious Communities. These Religious Communities are governed by well-established rules and traditions and also by ecclesiastical laws that frequently do not take into account the special requirements of American colleges and the kind of responsibility that falls to the lot of administrators in American colleges. A Catholic college, as a non-profit corporation, is chartered by the state for educational purposes and must be governed by a board of trustees. Then there are the accrediting agencies and State Departments of Education which expect to find in Catholic colleges the customary form of organization, with the usual responsibilities found in other colleges. Thus the operation of the college, the authority of its officers must be reconciled and keyed in with the peculiar set-up of a Religious Community. Religious superiors, the Rule and Constitutions of the Religious Community, have an authority in Church Law which takes precedence over college administration. This gives rise, at times, to problems which are peculiar to the Catholic college.

Since the constitutions of most Religious Communities do not usually take cognizance of the particular relationships of college administrators to students, parents, alumni, the state and the general public, it would seem desirable that there be a "modus vivendi" which would define jurisdictions and responsibilities, otherwise there is bound to be confusion and frustration. This is no less desirable in cases where the local Religious superior is also the administrative head of the college as it is in instances where these two offices are held by different persons.



The writer is convinced that the superior of the Religious Community and the administrative head of the college should not be one and the same person. The two jobs are frequently incompatible and, in any event, too much of a burden for one person. However, in making separate appointments for these two offices there are obvious dangers unless the two be selected as one team, so that they both can pull their share of the load in the same direction without treading on each other's toes.

2. Most Catholic colleges have a mixed faculty, that is, a staff composed of lay men and women as well as religious priests, brothers or sisters. This creates situations in such matters as salary, tenure, promotion, retirement and the proper integration of these lay-teachers into the college faculty, which have no exact parallel in non-Catholic colleges. In this connection it seems proper to raise the general question as to the place of the lay-teacher in the Catholic college conducted by a Religious Community. Is the lay-teacher in such a college merely a temporary expedient—a way of filling up the teaching gaps which the Religious Community for the time being cannot fill? Or does the lay-teacher have such a distinctive contribution to make to the Catholic college that a certain proportion of lay teachers should be included on the faculty even though the Religious Community is able to supply a complete staff from its own members?

Personally I would answer this latter question decidedly in the affirmative. I believe that lay-teachers have a distinctive contribution to make to the Catholic college, and my conviction grows out of many years of experience. I would go even further than this and say, that all things being equal, I can see no objection to having a sprinkling of non-Catholics among the lay-staff, if they can be carefully selected and placed in teaching fields where there is not a distinctly Catholic point of view. A number of instances could be cited where this has proved to be a very happy arrangement. In the friendly associations that should be encouraged between Catholic and non-Catholic colleges these non-Catholic faculty members can be a distinct help. They can also make a contribution to good public relations with the general public. It seems to me, also, that students have something to gain from such an arrangement as a practical evidence of the way in which all men of good will must be encouraged to work together for objectives which are held in common.

In stating this point of view I do not want to be misunderstood,

nor do I want to press the point too strongly. It is taken for granted, of course, that non-Catholics should be religious persons whose lives are above moral reproach. This requirement is fully as important in such cases as it would be with the Catholic lay-professor.

In this present article the writer has dealt only with the general problems of administration which are peculiar to Catholic colleges. In subsequent articles more specific problems of Catholic college administration will be treated. Throughout all the articles we will be concerned chiefly with the Catholic College of Liberal Arts and Sciences. The range of possible topics is wide, so some arbitrary selection will be necessary. Quite understandably, the topics selected will be those on which the writer has developed strong convictions. Emphasis will be on *practical* rather than theoretical or philosophical matters.

### The President of the Catholic College

The president of a Catholic college, like the president of the comparable non-Catholic college, is usually the administrative head of the institution. There are some exceptions to this, however. In the case of some colleges conducted by Religious Orders for women, the active head of the college has the title of dean and the Mother General or Mother Superior holds the nominal title of president, though she apparently has little to do with the actual running of the college. In a few cases I know of, the bishop of the diocese or some other ecclesiastic holds the title of president although it is apparently only an honorary one, the dean being to all intents and purposes the actual head of the college.

This seems to me a rather unfortunate practice which is not quite fair to the actual head of the college. In the American college world and before the general public, the title president carries with it a certain amount of prestige which is not given to the title of dean. Certainly in these days the administrative head of a college needs all the prestige that can be given in order to carry on with a fair share of success the arduous duties that fall to the lot of an American college president.

There seems to be no rhyme or reason why the title of president should be held by anyone other than the actual head of the college. Every college has a board of trustees, and it is eminently proper that the chairman of this board should be the major



Religious superior or the bishop of the diocese. Such a title is a dignified and honorable one, it is also a position of importance, and it can be held by a prominent ecclesiastic or by a religious superior without detracting in the public mind from the position of the active head of the college who can then hold the rightful title of president.

Perhaps a frank statement of my own reactions when, upon addressing a personal letter to the president of a particular Catholic college as found listed in a directory I receive a reply from another person who signs the letter as "Dean" without any explanation, will illustrate my point. I have never had such an experience when writing to the president of a non-Catholic college or university. Undoubtedly the explanation is that the Dean is actually the head of the Catholic college, but it is difficult to get away from the feeling that you have been treated discourteously. If, as one who has reason to know and understand the situation, this is my reaction, what must be the reactions of those who do not understand? Likewise, when I find that a dean is actually the head of a college without benefit of the proper title I cannot escape the thought that, probably, Religious superiors manifest a lack of trust in their particular religious subject when they permit him or her to do the work of an office while withholding the title. I do not know what can be done about eliminating this practice, but at least it can be mentioned as something undesirable.

#### QUALIFICATIONS OF THE COLLEGE PRESIDENT

What are some of the qualifications which a Catholic college president should have? Among the qualifications for a college president I would give highest priority to the following. *He or she should have demonstrated administrative ability*; that is the ability to plan, to initiate, to consult, to delegate authority wisely, to coordinate the efforts of others and to get others to work together and with the administration in the varied interests of the college. Above all, a college president should have the ability to make decisions without procrastination after having weighed carefully all possible reactions or effects that may follow upon the decision. Decisions must not be made hastily, but they must not be put off or delayed without good reason. Nothing causes the morale of a college, its faculty and students, to deteriorate more rapidly than the college president who cannot

make up his mind, who hesitates to make decisions in the hope that somehow or other matters will eventually work out satisfactorily.

What I have said thus far holds true for any college president. For the president of a Catholic college I would add that he or she should be an enthusiastic believer in the Catholic college with a clear vision of its mission in this country and in the world. The Catholic college president should have a sympathetic understanding and love for Catholic youth and should be zealous in working for their spiritual and temporal welfare in accordance with the aims and purposes of a genuinely Catholic college.

If along with these qualifications the president is a recognized scholar, a writer, an orator, or a "go-getter" in a financial way, that will be all to the good, but it is relatively unimportant and decidedly secondary to the qualifications already outlined.

#### SELECTING A COLLEGE PRESIDENT

Extensive contacts with college presidents in all types of institutions over a period of years has given me the impression that Catholic colleges are more frequently deficient in presidents of good executive ability than other colleges. It would be difficult to prove this statement statistically or otherwise, but I put it forward as a personal conviction without intending to reflect blame on anyone in particular. There is an explanation for the situation and at least a partial remedy can be suggested.

The choice of a president for any one of our Catholic colleges, which with few exceptions are conducted by Religious communities of men and women, is restricted to members of the particular religious community. In addition to this, regulations or custom usually limit tenure to not more than two three-year terms, so there is the recurring necessity of finding good replacements. Neither ordination nor religious profession endows the recipient with the special executive abilities that are requisite in a college president. As a consequence there is no reason to suppose that the incidence of good presidential timber is any greater per hundred religious teachers than it is among secular educators. That it is no easy task to pick a president for a secular college is clearly demonstrated by the long and careful search which such institutions make before choosing a new president. And it should be remembered that they have a much wider field from which to choose.

Appointments to the presidencies of Catholic colleges conducted by Religious are made from a much narrower field by Religious superiors, usually at the same time and in the same manner that all other appointments are made. It sometimes happens that Religious superiors do not have a clear conception of the intricate nature of the duties of a college president or the qualifications that are requisite, or they may be moved by considerations that are only remotely connected with the college. Frequently also the college president is appointed chiefly for his proven ability as a Religious superior or because he was a good dean or a registrar. Actually a good Religious superior or an excellent dean or registrar may make a very poor college president.

One way of providing more competent administrators for Catholic colleges is deliberately to train more administrators. Administrative ability cannot be imbibed from textbooks or through the attainment of a doctor's degree. It will come only through training on the job given under sympathetic tutelage to those with native ability and intelligence. Let religious orders make it the practice for a college president, with three or four years of experience behind him, to select a young assistant of promise to work closely with him in a confidential capacity. In this way the assistant can gain first hand experience with all the ins and outs of college administration. The president should discuss with him problems in administration as they actually arise, solicit his opinion, and then take pains to show this assistant why he has taken a certain action or why he has arrived at such and such a decision. Let such a person be designated simply as assistant to the president and have only delegated authority in such tasks as the president entrusts to him. He should not be permitted to feel that he is in line for a presidency or any other administrative position. Along with his duties as an "Assistant" he should carry a moderate teaching schedule so that after about two years of this experience he can readily be reassigned to a full teaching schedule in order to give someone else the chance to gain similar experience. A like practice might well be followed in the case of other administrative officers such as the dean, the registrar, the business officer, and so on. This might be called an "intern" system and would be somewhat analogous to what is customary in the professions of medicine and law and is now coming into use in government, business and industry. It must be admitted that there are

dangers in the practice and that it is open to abuse, but I know no other way that we can supply the need for trained administrative officers in our Catholic colleges under the present system of limited tenure. I might add that this is not merely a theoretical suggestion. I have seen it successfully demonstrated.

#### DUTIES OF A COLLEGE PRESIDENT

What are the duties which normally ought to be considered proper to the president of a Catholic college? It is not possible to reply to this question specifically and in detail because college differs from college. We can, however, mention various areas of activity that are common to most college presidents and make some comments under each.

*Responsibility for Institutional Policy:* The president should be the guardian of institutional policy. There is no reason why he should be the chief policy maker, but he is the one who should take the initiative in shaping policy and make recommendations looking toward changes in policy or toward the adoption of new policies by the Board of Trustees or other competent body.

*Relations with the Board of Trustees:* This board is legally responsible for the corporate acts of the college, and in a sense the college president is its executive officer. A Board of Trustees can be extremely helpful, it can be little more than a legal front, or it can become very meddlesome in the internal affairs of the college. A lot will depend upon the prudence, tact and resourcefulness of the college president, plus the interest which he arouses in the board, the confidence in his administration of the college which he inspires, the clarity of his reports to the board and the logic and reasonableness with which he presents his various requests to the board.

*Relations with Administrative Officers:* No college worthy of the name can afford to be a one-man institution. The president must have associated with him other administrative officers who have well-defined functions and responsibilities. These officers must be free to carry out their duties within the general policies approved by the president. It is the president's responsibility to see that they carry out their duties efficiently. He should always be available for consultation and advice when requested. He should give to the other officials of the college his unwavering moral support when they require it, but he must not interfere or go over their heads without grave necessity.



For instance, the registrar should be governed by well-defined admission policies. In denying admission to students within these established policies he should have the full support of the president when outside or inside pressures arise. Parents or alumni may appeal from a registrar's decision directly to him and they should be courteously received and their story listened to. If the case seems to warrant further action, he must make no commitments then and there, but should discuss the whole problem with the registrar and they should mutually agree what further action, if any, needs to be taken. Never should he accept a student and then tell the registrar what he has done, much less should he order the registrar to accept a student "willy-nilly."

*Relations with the Faculty:* One of the most difficult jobs of a college president is his relationship with the faculty, individually and collectively. At times he may require the patience of Job, at other times the wisdom of a Solomon, at other times the tact of a seasoned diplomat. He cannot expect to be popular or liked by all, but he should strive to be just and fair and to merit at least the grudging admission of the most disaffected faculty member that he is, with all his faults, a "square-shooter."

*Relations with the Students:* As colleges are presently organized, the president will have few direct contacts with students unless he goes out of his way to seek these contacts. It seems important that he should have his finger, so to speak, on the pulse of the student body. How to do this without running afoul of other administrative officers is a problem to be solved. I make these suggestions:

I believe a president should employ an open-door policy as far as students are concerned. Students should be given to understand that they are at liberty to call on the president whenever they wish. They may gain access to his office whenever he is not engaged by simply putting in an appearance without the necessity of making an appointment or without the need to state their business to a secretary in an outer office. Comparatively few will avail themselves of this privilege, but the fact that the door is open is in itself very beneficial. Of course the president must be careful that students don't seek this means to by-pass other officials.

I believe the president should himself teach at least one course, preferably to seniors. This will be found to be a very rewarding experience that will pay dividends not only in both student and

faculty relationships but also in alumni relations as well. To add such a task to the other burdens of a president requires careful planning. Unless the task, once assumed, can faithfully be carried through, it is better not to undertake it at all. In other words, if classes are ill prepared or if they are omitted, more harm than good will be done.

#### EXTERNAL OBLIGATIONS OF THE COLLEGE PRESIDENT

The chief external obligations of a college president can be grouped under the general heading of *Public Relations*. The importance of fostering good public relations for the college cannot be sufficiently emphasized. This is an area where the college president must be alert and active because, without intelligent leadership on his part, good public relations cannot be achieved. The subject of Public Relations is a rather large one, but we can comment here briefly on the president's duties in regard to alumni, educational associations, sister institutions and the general public.

*Relations with Alumni:* A Catholic college especially should have a continuing interest in its graduates and former students. An active alumni organization with local chapters or clubs is essential to alumni morale. Responsibility for the detailed organizational work should, of course, be entrusted to a special officer who should report directly to the president. However, no one can represent the college more effectively to alumni than the president. Therefore he should make it his business to appear personally once a year at meetings of the various alumni groups that have been carefully planned in advance. He must also meet and talk with alumni who visit the college. At times the president of a Catholic college may seriously question whether it is really worth while to undergo the trouble and inconvenience which this involves. Secular college presidents consider this work to be necessary and frequently find it of material and financial benefit to their institutions. In Catholic colleges it does not seem to bring financial benefits; in fact most Catholic colleges find that alumni activities are not even self-supporting and must be subsidized from college funds. However, alumni activity in Catholic colleges should be directed towards encouraging Christian living, Catholic action and constant self-improvement if we are to be true to the high purposes which we claim for the Catholic college.



*Relations with Educational Associations:* Rightly or wrongly the prestige of a college even its academic standing is judged by the reputation of its president. Frequently has it happened in my hearing that questions have been raised in committee meetings about the standing of this or that institution. Invariably the question is asked: Who is the president? If he is known in the group, if he is considered to be an able person, the assumption seems to be that his institution is O.K. or, if he is new at the institution, will shortly be O.K. under his leadership. In the best interest of his institution a college president cannot afford to refrain from taking an active part in the chief educational associations. I regret to say that Catholic college executives frequently are very remiss in this participation. Possibly much can be said in their defense, but the fact remains that they are not pulling their full weight in the various educational circles nor exercising the influence for good which lies in their power.

*Relations with Sister Institutions:* Too frequently there seems to be a petty feeling of rivalry among Catholic colleges, especially between institutions which happen to be near neighbors. This often leads to a complete absence of the usual courtesies which are wont to be exchanged between educational institutions. This situation can largely be corrected by intelligent action on the part of the president. Relationship with non-Catholic institutions likewise must be cultivated. Here, again, there is frequently a neglect that cannot be excused. To receive regularly invitations to special celebrations, inaugurations, centennials and so on, to acknowledge these seldom, to attend rarely if at all, or to send unknown substitutes, betrays a lack of fundamental courtesy which prevents cordial relations with sister institutions.

*Relations with the General Public:* It is certainly desirable that a college have the esteem and respect of the general public. The president of the college can have both a direct and an indirect influence in bringing this about. His influence is direct in so far as he will have frequent opportunities to appear in public, to speak to various groups and to lend his encouragement to various movements for the public good. All these relationships must be dignified. It is not necessary for him to be an active Rotary or Lion's Club member, though he may occasionally speak before such groups. He must not become embroiled in doubtful movements or in partisan politics. Indirectly he can

help by encouraging faculty members to take an active part in worthwhile community activities. He can also arrange for them to appear before various groups.

#### IN CONCLUSION

In commenting briefly on a president's duties in the areas which we have selected, we have not by any means exhausted the possibilities. However, I believe that enough has been said to indicate the importance, the complex nature and the wide range of a president's duties both within and without the college and to emphasize the necessity of selecting for this office only the men and women who are qualified.

#### SUGGESTED READINGS

##### CATHOLIC COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION

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## THE PRESIDENT OF THE COLLEGE

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Kelly, Robert L.: "Choosing a President in the American College," *Journal of the A. A. U. W.*, April 1937, pp. 149-151. A plea for mutual helpfulness between Board, Faculty and Alumni. Give some heed to faculty opinion!

Nimley, Harold: "If I Were a University President." *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, Dec. 1945, pp. 487-493. Practical, specific suggestions from an efficiency expert. Some suggestions: Keep salaries secret. Get objective efficiency scales of professors. Encourage annual progress reports. Control artificial professor popularity by controlling grades. Abandon automatic increases and permanent tenure. Set up an adequate retirement plan. Get outside audits once in three years. Abandon summer contracts for regular staff members.

Reeves, Floyd W., and Russell, John Dale: *College Organization and Administration*. Indianapolis (Board of Education of the Disciples of Christ), 1929, pp. 64-66. "The President." A brief description of the office of the president. Nothing startling—but sane.

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# Curriculum Analysis for Nursing Education

By LORETTA HEIDGERKEN

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**N**URSING education comes of age, fortunately or not, at a time when theories and philosophies of education are stirred by cross currents. Opposing theories set off against each other such contrasting beliefs as the learning of subjects versus the experience way of learning, psychological versus logical organization, intellectualism versus vocationalism, discipline versus freedom, indoctrination versus open-minded exploration.

Along with this maze of theories and philosophies is the background of a changing social order, a dynamic world. The rapidity with which medical, scientific and social trends shift and change makes it difficult for nursing and nursing education to keep pace. It therefore becomes increasingly important that educators take time to reflect on the problems of curriculum analysis, for the more complex the social order becomes, the greater the problems of nurse education. As the reader well knows, nursing is a profession that concerns itself intimately with the health and welfare of humanity, which is not only influenced by, but actually rests upon the structure of society.

Curriculum analysis is essential in determining how well the needs and conditions of society are met in providing nurses equipped to function effectively in this complex changing world. This point is well taken in the articles written by Edward L. Bernays about the knowledge of and the reactions to the nursing profession by the various groups of workers, professions, organizations and the general public—articles which indicate the importance and necessity of a critical evaluation of nursing education and its products. The curriculum of any professional school must be changed if it does not qualify its graduates to meet successfully the problems of the profession. Consequently, every school must study its curriculum and make essential adjustments and changes unless it can justify its current standards in the light of present needs and conditions which should be met by the school's established objectives.

Too many curricula in schools of nursing are a result of patterns and traditions handed down with only a "scissors and paste



pot" revision to meet the most urgent demands, rather than being based on a scientific study of existent problems and needs. Often the curriculum is loaded down with obsolete and dead materials, and even with materials that have little more than ornamental value. However, in the haste to meet current needs, or to bring the curricula in line with modern thoughts and practices, the educator must not sacrifice her fundamental values and principles. She must take the time and thought to evaluate the total program, analyzing each and every course in terms of objectives, as well as changing social needs and conditions.

Fundamental principles and values are determined by the educational philosophy of life, of nursing, and of education. In modern literature, the term *philosophy* is used to express attitude toward life, reaction toward mental and physical activities, and similar superficial reasons. However, philosophy is much more than that. A commonly accepted definition of philosophy is the science of all things through their ultimate reasons and causes as discovered by the unaided light of human reason. Thus it can be seen that philosophy is much more than an attitude or reaction, for its concern is the study of ultimate or final causes and ends. Therefore, philosophy of life considers the origin, nature and destiny of man himself and the world in which he lives. A philosophy which accepts God as its ultimate end recognizes man's true nature, his purpose and place in society, and the fundamental means necessary for man to attain his purpose in conformity with his nature and his destiny. Such a philosophy searches for truth which will develop the elements of man's nature according to their essential hierarchy. This philosophy accepts man not only as a social being, but as a moral being with responsibilities and rights.

We of the Catholic faith accept the philosophy which recognizes God as its ultimate end. For this reason, Catholic educators believe that education in schools of nursing should include the guiding of the individual student nurse in her development of knowledge, attitudes, and skills concerning her relationship to God, fellow-men, nature, and self. Thus philosophy supplies the basis of the educative process by determining the aims of education in a school of nursing, which are to prepare the student nurse to meet and deal with personal, professional, and social problems of spiritual life, physical and mental health, family life responsibilities, recreation and leisure time activities. In

accordance with this philosophy, the school assumes the responsibility for the student, as such, and not merely for the nursing aspects of the student. A concept other than this as a basic philosophy of a school, or as the objective to which the school aims, places the school outside of the classification of a professional institution, automatically reclassifying it as a technical school.

In addition to determining the aims of education in a school, and the fact that the school assumes responsibility for the student, Catholic philosophy also directs educators in choosing means to attain their aims. These means are the continual development of the intellect through the theory and practice provided in the different branches of the curriculum, together with a continual strengthening tending toward the fullness of Christian character. In this way, it is believed that students will be sent forth into the world as women of sound judgment, intellectually and morally enlightened, and also as nurses professionally equipped to give competent nursing care to the sick, to function efficiently in programs of social health in preventive medicine, and to make intelligent adjustments to a changing environment. Thus, through philosophy and religion, principles and practices provide for Catholic Ideal nursing, which is manifested in physical fitness, economic competency, social virtues, cultural development, nursing competency, and moral perfection. This is the goal toward which all Catholic Schools of Nursing must tend to fulfill their obligations to God, society, and the students entrusted to their care—a responsibility and obligation which must never be forgotten.

In the field of nursing education today, a sound philosophy should be the nucleus underlying the curriculum. It is of the utmost importance that the philosophy of nursing meet the profound needs of a dynamic society. As a vocation, nursing has a long history of interesting and vital experiences which have colored its philosophy and made it quite distinct from other scientific groups. Having been passed down from one generation to another, the philosophy of nursing and nursing education shows evidence of the influence of authoritarian, autocratic, liberal, and democratic strains. These various strains, though they be submerged beneath the surface, often unconsciously give rise to conflicting philosophies and conceptions of education and curriculum



building.<sup>1</sup> To challenge such a conflict, curriculum-makers need but clarify their thinking by having a unified and unifying plan of life.

From the above discussion, it can be seen how very important and necessary it is for the educator to clarify and define her philosophy, including philosophy of education, and to epitomize her beliefs in terms of aims and objectives for the curriculum.

Before the educator can proceed very far in curriculum analysis, it is important to consider the interpretation or meaning of the concept, professional nursing. The full meaning of the term, professional nursing, is not easily determined today. If nursing is considered merely the care of the sick, one type of curriculum will be planned. If it is interpreted as including the prevention of disease and the preservation of health, another type of curriculum will be needed. The interpretation of nursing will, of course, be influenced by the underlying philosophy of life. For example, if an educator's philosophy is theocentric (God-centered), she must be concerned about the spiritual aspects of the student nurse and patient as well as the physical and mental aspects.

The meaning of professional nursing has further become clouded by the advent of the practical nurse or nurse aide. During the war, practical nurses performed many duties satisfactorily that had long been thought of as the absolute jurisdiction of the graduate nurse. Consequently this auxiliary worker came to be accepted as a necessity. One problem in curriculum now is to distinguish carefully between the professional nurse and the practical nurse. What kind of service should each be prepared to give to society? Should there be overlapping in curriculum content? What can be safely eliminated in each curriculum and still prepare each type nurse to function effectively?

The professional nurse must undoubtedly have the broader social vision, a fuller understanding of the social and economic factors affecting health, as well as greater technical efficiency. The professional nurse must master a considerable body of knowledge, as well as practice the actual art of nursing itself. She must assume the responsibility for the direction of the auxiliary worker. All of these factors should be considered in curriculum analysis.

In addition to defining the concept professional nursing, interpretation of the term *curriculum* should be clarified in order that

<sup>1</sup> Stewart, Isabel, *The Education of Nurses*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1943, pp. 312.

all educators will have the same conception of the term. Numerous definitions are given to the term *curriculum*. The one accepted here is the broad interpretation which refers to the schematic and systematic arrangement of the sum total of experiences that form the life of a particular group of students during a considerable period of time—experiences that are planned to realize special objectives and needs under the guidance of the faculty and the student's own direction.

The curriculum content of all professional schools can be classified into three groups: (1) A body of organized knowledge which includes facts, information, laws, principles, etc.; (2) a variety of skills and techniques which includes social, managerial, manipulative, intellectual, manual; (3) ideals, appreciations, attitudes, and rules of conduct.

It is especially important that the reader be aware of these three groups of content. All too often skills and techniques are stressed, whereas the other two equally important groups of curriculum content are forgotten, although they are essential if the graduate student is to function as a professional nurse.

The next problem lies not in the curriculum content itself, but rather in the educational processes and technics employed in curriculum use. In order to achieve effective learning, the principles of education must be observed. A few principles that relate directly to curriculum are:

1. *Objectives.* One of the important, if not the most important activity is the selection of objectives, not only by the teacher but by the students as well. This is true whether the curriculum is considered a course of study, a unit, or a lesson plan. The more definite the objectives, the more efficient the learning.

2. *Self-activity.* The principle that every individual learns only by his own activity has been known from the beginning of time. To learn, the student must study. She cannot learn by simply listening to the teacher lecture. Although this principle is recognized by everyone, it is violated more often than any other in the school of nursing. This fact becomes clear merely by looking at many of the programs of study offered in the schools—programs which do not allow the student sufficient time to study. When a student must carry more than 18 hours of classwork, there is little time left to study, much less to develop the special qualities usually set up as curriculum aims.

The factor of motivation also enters into the principle of self-

activity, since the more sustained, purposeful, intelligent activity the student pursues, the more effective the learning. How is activity initiated and sustained? By motivating the student, pointing out the objectives to her, implanting the goals clearly in her mind, allowing sufficient time for study. In spite of these seemingly simple means of initiating and sustaining activity, students often enter schools of nursing with great motivation, only to lose it before they have completed the first year of training.

In a recent motivation study made at The Catholic University of America, the students made the following criticisms of their educational experiences. Teaching was said to be poor and uninteresting, not requiring study because it was no more than a reiteration of the textbook material. There is nothing more deadly to motivation and interest than a mere summary of the textbook as dictated by the teacher. Students can read. They do not need teachers to read to or for them. The teacher should bring to the students more information, wider experiences, and greater understandings than the textbook alone can provide.

3. *Individual Differences.* That individuals vary is an accepted principle which does not require lengthy development here. Yet how little provision is made in the curriculum for individual differences. Usually a static plan is formed, and every student must fit into it, irrespective of her previous experience, background, or abilities.

If the above principles of education are accepted, then it must be realized that the curriculum is actually made in the classroom and in the clinical situation. The teacher (all instructors who have a part in the education of the student) is the curriculum maker. Educational philosophers may enumerate philosophies. Psychologists may describe the learning processes. Curriculum experts may set up the courses of study. But all these forces only reach the student as they are translated and interpreted by the teacher. It therefore becomes important that all who have a part in the teaching of the student must also have a part in the planning of the curriculum. Thus, this analysis of curriculum is concerned with the curriculum organization within the school. Until the curriculum has become the property of the faculty by means of discussion, explanation, and example, it is just so much inert material. For, although all faculty members may not participate in active teaching, all do participate in

indirect teaching. The head nurse, by assignment of a patient to a student, selects a learning situation. By the same token, all teachers may not participate directly in course production, but all may participate through discussion and evaluation. All should participate to the best of their ability, some more actively because of natural ability or more knowledge than others. In any case, committees should be carefully set up so as to have representation from all areas of the curriculum.

Inasmuch as evaluation is an integral part of the administration and carrying out of the curriculum, provision should be made for continuous appraisal of the curriculum. Too many teachers and administrators think of evaluation as something separate and apart from the curriculum. Evaluation of the curriculum includes the function of appraising students so that the proper level of education is provided, appraising of methods of teaching and teaching aids used so that the most effective learning will be promoted, appraising the facilities, which include both clinical and non-clinical facilities necessary to achieve the objectives established, appraising the physical and social environment provided for learning so that efficient learning can take place.

Up to this point, this paper has considered the philosophy underlying the curriculum, the epitomization of the philosophy into aims, and the educational principles underlying the curriculum. It is now appropriate to consider the time plan and program of studies. The program of studies gives the time plan, the level of educational experience standards, and physical and other conditions under which learning is to take place. In this aspect of curriculum analysis, emphasis is placed on the arrangement of learning experiences and the utilization of available time and facilities in realizing the stated aims of the curriculum.

The time plan should indicate the scheme for the main divisions of time, such as years, terms, vacation, as well as the approximate allotment of time for such activities as classes, study periods, clinical practice periods, extra professional activities, etc. Title and placement of courses of study, hours allotted for each type of course, and clinical experiences will be all determined by the purpose and objectives of the curriculum, and by the standards selected.

As far as possible, the learning experiences of the student should be in terms of adjustment of the whole individual to the whole situation. This means that each course should be planned



in such a way that integration can take place in the student's mind and personality. Thus, the educator must strive to make learning situations more natural. Learning material should not be split up into meaningless segments. In addition, orientation of students to new situations and experiences should be achieved through survey courses, where desirable. Integration and correlation should be planned. Above all, continuity and progression should exist, with the student moving to ever higher levels.

In conclusion, it can be said that the purpose of the curriculum is to send forth good nurses who are intellectually, morally, and professionally equipped to meet the ever-changing world into which they are going. This can be accomplished only if the educator has clarified her educational philosophy, expressing it in aims and objectives, and has helped to cooperatively plan a curriculum which will permit the student to mature into a well-integrated personality. Such integration can only be accomplished if the curriculum has purpose, continuity, progression, consistency, unity, and integration.

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## Building and Utilizing the Examination

By V. E. LEICHTY

ALL too frequently we teachers think of the examination as a minor adjunct to the course of study—something which may be used to confirm our conclusions about the sum of, or lack of, knowledge that our individual students have acquired. The well-planned examination is much more than that. It is an assessment not alone of student acquisition, but of the course of study and of the effectiveness of teaching as well.

The first step in planning a good examination is the determination of what is to be examined. This sounds very simple, but actually it is far from that. It involves, first, a careful analysis of the specific objectives of the instruction that has been given, and second, an equally careful analysis of the types of student behavior which will evidence the attainment of those objectives. For example, we may find that certain students score reasonably high on the ordinary spelling test, but misspell word after word in their writing. If so, the ordinary spelling test is not testing the real objective of our teaching—correct spelling in actual usage. The clue to the first problem is obviously the stated objectives of the course, but normally these objectives are phrased in very general terms. In the chart for a Literature test which appears on page 579, we find one of the objectives to be a "Knowledge of Forms, Devices and Terminology." However, in constructing the test it was necessary to break this down into more concrete objectives. The specific forms that were taught were the Petrarchian, the Shakespearian and the Spenserian sonnets, the lyric, the dramatic monolog, etc. The term *devices* was considered to cover such things as alliteration, assonance, satire, and figures of speech. Terminology, for this examination meant a working knowledge of such technical words as *iambic pentameter*, *plot*, *situation*, etc. It is certain that many who read this will quarrel with the choice of terms used in the statement of general objectives. Actually that choice is of no importance; what is of importance is a relatively concrete concept of what is meant by each of them in the mind of the examiner as he builds his examination. It will be noted that some overlapping is inevitable. A metaphor is a device according to this system and



the word itself is a term which we would expect the student to know. Such overlapping is one of the most potent reasons for careful test planning and careful item construction. Analysis may show that it is not the metaphor concept which is difficult for students to grasp, but the term itself, which may be only a jumble of sounds to them.

Certainly a part of the planning of an examination is the determination of the approximate use of the essay type and of the short answer type of question. There is no question that each has its values. The essay type, if properly worded, requires the student to organize and synthesize—to put down his ideas clearly and concisely. It allows him to choose the vocabulary he will use, to show a certain amount of artistry in his choice of sentence structure, and to bring into his discussion additional materials which may have some bearing on the subject. It also allows us to see the type of thinking he uses in arriving at his conclusion. He may arrive at the wrong answer, but use the right method or reasons, or he may light upon the correct answer through some specious method or invalid reasoning. Aside from its limited coverage, the weakness of the essay type examination is not so much one of the examination as of the examiner. Our judgments of such examinations are necessarily subjective. Our personal convictions, our conscious or subconscious comparison with the paper or papers previously read, our general health at the time of reading, or even our degree of fatigue all enter into our judgments. Consequently, if we were to read the same paper at two different times, we might well give it two different ratings. The reliability of such an examination is therefore a measure of the reader, not of the examinations.

One method of making our judgments more objective is to write the answer to the question at the time we write the question. We have then before us the response which we hope our students will provide, and when we come to grade the papers we can make constant reference to this to see whether the individual exceeded, or failed to rise to, our expectations.

The short answer test is most usable in situations which permit the isolation of individual units of knowledge or of individual skills or abilities. It has two great values: objectivity in correction, and more thorough coverage of the materials taught.

Many teachers seem to think of a short answer test as a test

capable of examining only factual material. Its most frequent use is unquestionably for this type of evaluation, but the alert teacher can adapt it to the examination of many other concepts, a few of which are listed below.

1. Recall of factual information.

The referendum is used to

- a. nominate candidates for public office.
- b. force a legislature to take action on proposed laws.
- c. submit a law to voters for approval.
- d. make up a deficit in the budget.
- e. recall a public official from office.

2. Ability to draw inferences or arrive at logical conclusions.

Which one of the following groups would be most benefitted by a continuous rise in prices?

- a. Working men with steady jobs.
- b. Persons engaged in lending money.
- c. Farmers with mortgaged properties.
- d. Persons living on income from pensions.
- e. Holders of government securities.

3. Ability to interpret textual material.

An important miscalculation in Malthus' law of population was the fact that he

- a. Overlooked the possibility that war would limit the rate of population growth.
- b. Antagonized society by advocating scientific birth control.
- c. Underestimated the rate of growth of the world's population.
- d. Believed that public controls should be established over food production.
- e. Failed to take into account the ability of men to increase the rate of food production.

4. Ability to discern similarities and dissimilarities.

An important difference between the United Nations and the League of Nations is that in the former

- a. The Assembly sponsors numerous associated international bodies.
- b. Each of the members is committed to supply armed forces for the suppression of aggression.
- c. A degree of international control is exercised over colonial possessions of the defeated powers.
- d. The major powers have a controlling voice in the affairs of the Council.
- e. Small nations have no control over policy making.

	Poetry	Othello	Gul-liver	Short Stories	John Brown's Body	Odyssey	Pride and Prejudice	Moby Dick	For Whom the Bell Tolls	New Material	TOTAL
<i>Knowledge</i>											
1. Forms, Devices, and Terminology.....	6	2	1	0	2	2	0	1	0	7	21
2. Situation.....	0	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	13
3. Action.....	0	1	2	4	1	1	1	1	2	0	13
4. Character.....	1	3	0	2	1	0	4	1	1	0	13
<i>Understanding</i>											
5. External Purpose.....	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	5
6. Meaning.....	4	3	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	2	20
7. Function of 1-4.....	1	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
<i>Skills</i>											
Recognition of 1-7 in new materials.....	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	7
Relation of ideas to other literary situations.....	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	7
Relation of forms and concepts to similar principles in other arts.....	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	7
Relation of ideas from Literature to life situations.....	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	9
Total.....	15	15	15	15	8	8	8	8	8	20	120

This chart provides for an examination consisting of 120 short answer items. It indicates that fifteen of these items will have poetry as their subject matter, that six of the fifteen will test the students' knowledge of forms, devices and terminology.

## 5. Ability to determine relevancy.

In preparing a bibliography on such a subject as "The Relative Intelligence of Minority Racial Groups in the United States," which of the following sources would you eliminate as offering little likelihood of being useful?

- a. The dictionaries.
- b. The card catalog.
- c. The *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*.
- d. The *Education Index*.
- e. *Psychological Abstracts*.

By use of a series of items one can examine much more complicated reasoning than is illustrated above. Examples of the development of such examinations can be found in most of the examinations published by the Cooperative Test Service or in the tests developed by the P.E.A. in its eight-year study.

Other than those already mentioned, the short answer examination has no inherent values. Its goodness or badness most frequently depends upon the care with which it is constructed. The good examination should cover the subject evenly. One way by which the examiner can be certain that it does is to chart the examination. If he lists his objectives at one side of a page and his subject matter at the top, he will have the fundamentals of an examination plan. The next step is to determine which part of the subject matter best lends itself to the testing of each objective. The third step is to weigh each objective and each block of subject matter in order to be certain that all objectives and all subject matter are touched upon and that no one objective or area is given undue emphasis. This does not mean that all must be considered of equal value, but it does imply that consideration be given to the relative values of the varying parts.

When the objective and subject matter of an individual item are determined definitely, it is much easier to construct a good item. But even when these are known, the construction of items involving abstract concepts is still difficult. To some degree this difficulty stems from our inability to isolate such concepts for purposes of testing. The keying of such items may also present some problems. In many cases it must, of necessity, be quite subjective—i.e., test the students' agreement with the thinking of the examiner. When this is so, the key should be checked by a jury of competent teachers. For example, consider the following group of items involving the analysis of a short piece of writing:



Read the following quotation carefully:

Since 1850 the average wage rate in American industry has increased 500%. Even allowing for increases in the cost of living, the "real wage"—i.e., the purchasing power of labor in terms of goods—has approximately doubled since 1900.

The worker has also been receiving a steadily increasing proportion of the total income available. In 1900 wage and salary payments represented only 53% of the national income. By 1934, the figure had increased to 67% of the national income. Taking the manufacturing industries alone, the percentage of income paid in wages and salaries amounts to 80%.

If all the profits of all the corporations that reported for income tax purposes in 1935 had been turned over to workers instead of to stockholders, the resulting increase in wages would have been less than 8%.

Industry has done more than pay workers out of its income. In times of stress it has paid them out of its deficits. In the three years ending in 1932, American business paid out 24 billion dollars more than it took in—paid from its savings of preceding years—thus making by far the greatest contribution toward sustaining public purchasing power during the depression.

The American system of private industry has distributed more income to more people than any other system in the history of the world.

Read each of the numbered statements below. In front of each statement place a(n)

- A. if there is evidence that the author wants you to *agree with* or *accept* the idea in the statement.
- B. if there is evidence that he wishes you to *disagree with* or *reject* the idea in the statement.
- C. If there is *no evidence* to show that he wants you to agree or disagree with the idea in the statement.

Do not mark a statement with more than one letter.

- .....1. People who discredit American private enterprise do not have reliable facts on which to base their judgment.
- .....2. The present purchasing power of the workers is possible only under a system of private ownership of property.
- .....3. The profits of corporations should be turned over to the workers rather than to the stockholders.
- .....4. American industrial leaders have never resisted the efforts of workers to secure higher wages.  
etc.

Read the following statements and decide (1) which ones represent forms of arguments used by the author, and (2)

which ones represent desirable forms of argument whether used by the author or not. Place an *A* before forms used by the author and a *B* before forms not used by him. Then place a *C* before forms that are desirable and a *D* before forms that are undesirable. Each statement should have two letters before it—*AC*, *AD*, *BC* or *BD*.

- .....1. Assumes that the point of view expressed in the article is that which is held by the majority of Americans.
  - .....2. Gives facts in such a way that the reader can check their source to see whether they have been reported accurately.
  - .....3. Uses statistics for industries in which wages are among the highest to illustrate the rise in wages.
  - .....4. Presents some of the major advantages and disadvantages of our system of private ownership of industry.
  - .....5. Indicates that there will be undesirable consequences to industry if our present industrial system is changed.
  - .....6. Defines "average wage rate" in such a way that it is possible to give only one meaning to it.
  - .....7. Suggests that all groups of workers have been receiving an increasingly larger share of industrial income.
- etc.

At this point it may be well to point out that a large amount of time is necessary for the construction of examinations such as the one suggested here. Few teachers who are carrying a full teaching load will be willing to add this to their burden, but it is entirely possible for a school which has a department consisting of several members to relieve one of its staff of other duties to allow time for the construction of examinations. The departmental examination has an advantage in that it tends to keep teachers to the agreed-upon objectives of the course and thus to unify instruction. It can be bad, however, if it is misused. Weak teachers may tend to neglect the broader course objectives such as the development of attitudes, social behavior or habits, and cram their students in order that they may show up well on the examination. This is a criticism, not of the examination, but of the use to which it is put.

The reliance upon any examination as a grading device should be determined by a number of factors: the care with which it was constructed and administered, the coverage it gives, the amount

of personal relationship existing between the teacher and the student, and, of course, the philosophy of grading existing in the school system. The more carefully an examination is planned, constructed, administered and scored, the more value can be placed upon the scores of that examination, and conversely, if the scores made on an examination are to weigh heavily in the determination of a student's grade, that examination should be planned, constructed, administered, and scored as carefully as possible.

Before discussing the scoring of the test it may be necessary to define a number of terms and concepts. There are two philosophies which may be followed in scoring a test. First, fixed figures may be set in advance as the limits for grades of A, B, C, D, E or for whatever grades are used.<sup>1</sup>

Such a procedure assumes that, in his omniscience, the test maker is able to determine in advance that all the materials to be tested have been adequately taught; that the test is reliable, i.e., that it will consistently measure a given quality; that it is precise, i.e., that it will accurately measure a given quality; that it is valid, i.e., that it measures the exact quality or quantity it attempts to measure; and finally that knowledge of a certain percentage of that material is essential to passing. Actually, it is impossible to construct such a test. To the contrary, we can never be certain that any two units or items of a test have the same value. Hence any test score is a combination of unequal units.

<sup>1</sup> There is a seldom recognized fallacy in averaging or adding percentages. Let us suppose, for illustration, that a teacher gives two tests and a final during the semester, and scores all of them in terms of percentage. Let us assume that on the first test there are ten questions; on the second, fifty; and on the final examination, one hundred. Let us also assume that student A receives scores of 50% on the first test, 80% on the second, and 70% on the third. We might also wish to weight the final examination as double. If such were the case, we would have four scores (50%, 80%, 70% and 70%) to average, which would provide an average score of 67.5%. However, if the various items or questions are considered to be equal in value, we would have a different average. It would become

$$\begin{array}{r} 5 - 40 - 70 - 70 \quad 185 \\ \hline 10 - 50 - 100 - 100 \quad 260 \end{array} \quad \text{or } 70.4\%$$

It will be noted that neither of these methods makes allowance for differing degrees of difficulty in the several examinations. If 60% should happen to be the highest score made on the first test, then student A would probably be near the top of the class on that examination; if the average score made on the final were 85%, he might well be near the bottom of the class. Such difficulties can be resolved by the use of scaled scores.

The second and more common method of scoring a test is based upon the measure of deviation from the norm. It is this second method which will be discussed here.

Items may be scored in a number of different ways, depending upon the purpose for which they are being used. In a diagnostic test, for example, the wrongs are generally of greater importance to the teacher than the rights, for the purpose of such a test is to point out the deficiencies of the students. For a placement test, the rights, the wrongs, or the rights minus a fraction of the wrongs can be used to form a distribution. The purpose here is merely segregation. The subtraction of a fraction of the wrongs from the rights is normally used to minimize the guessing factor. Mathematically, the formula should be  $R - W$  for the true-false or any two-answer type items,  $R - \frac{1}{2}W$  for the three-response items,  $R - \frac{1}{3}W$  for four-response,  $R - \frac{1}{4}W$  for five-response, etc. Most tests, however, are not made up of a single type of item, so it is seldom possible to apply a single formula to a whole test. In such cases, the formula which fits the greatest number may be used. In actual practice, the subtraction seems to make little difference in the total distribution, but it may move a few individuals a considerable distance up or down that distribution. The subtraction of rights minus wrongs or even of rights minus one-half the wrongs is sometimes awkward in that it results in a negative score for the poorer students. If this occurs, it is generally helpful to add a fixed number of points to all the scores and thus change these negative to positive scores.

Whatever the method chosen for scoring, it will yield a distribution—some students will receive high scores, some low scores, and the majority will tend to score somewhere between the extremes and to congregate about the median or middle score. It is this middle group who form the norm and are the *C* students. The determination of breaking points between the various grades can be arrived at mathematically by calculating standard deviations and applying them, but normally it is easier to set top and bottom limits for each grade and then look for breaks in the distribution. Thus if you plan to give 40 to 60 per cent *C*'s to a class of 200, you would look for a break of three or four points somewhere between 40 and 60 scores above the median and for another such break between 40 and 60 scores below the median. If you find, for example, that the 45th score above the median is 109 and the



46th is 112, it would provide such a break. In the lower brackets this might occur between the 51st and the 52nd score below the median. If no breaks occur between your *B's* and *C's* or *C's* and *D's*, you may have to set the percentage of *C's* arbitrarily and count up and down from the median. If the examination is at all comprehensive, there is generally little difficulty in separating *A's* from *B's* or *F's* from *D's*.

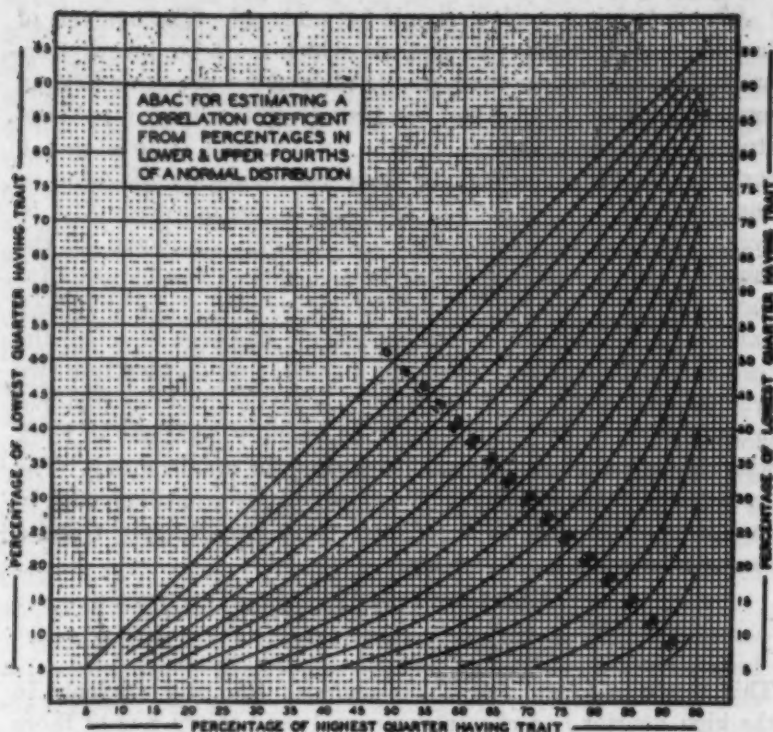
After a test is scored, it should be analyzed. The analysis of test items is a tedious job, but one which must be done if tests are to be improved or their results utilized for anything beyond mere segregation. If the test has been given to a large number of students, the first step in making an analysis is to obtain a random sample. This can be done by arranging the tests or answer sheets in alphabetical order and taking out every fifth or every tenth test or answer sheet until enough are chosen for the sample. In general, it is better to use units of one hundred for such samples; round figures facilitate the computations that may have to be made later. Once the sample has been selected, the tests should be arranged according to score and divided into two groups—high and low. If the sample is made up of one hundred or more tests or answer sheets, it is generally sufficient to work with the high and low quarters, discarding the middle group. The second step in the analysis is to record exactly what happened to each item of the test. For a five-response item we might find a record similar to the following:

	High Quarter (50)					Low Quarter (50)				
Responses	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
	38	0	10	1	1	35	0	14	0	1

This would indicate that thirty-eight of the fifty students in the high quarter had chosen response 1, and thirty-five of those in the low quarter had made a similar choice. For purposes of distinguishing between the good students and the poor students, this item is obviously of little value. Note also that it is essentially a two-choice item, for of the one hundred students, only three chose responses 2, 4, and 5—none choosing 2, one making choice of 4, and two making choice of 5. Theoretically the ideal record should approach the one which follows in which the first response is again the desired one.

High Quarter					Low Quarter				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
50	0	0	0	0	0	12	13	12	13

This is, of course, an ideal impossible to achieve and if it were achieved for every item or even for a majority of the items in a test, the test itself would be a bad one, for there would be no spread to the distribution. The top half of the class would score close to 100 per cent and the bottom half would score close to zero. There would be no middle group.



Coefficient of discrimination can be calculated mathematically for each item but it will be found much easier to determine them by use of a graph such as is shown on this page. A good item should have a coefficient of discrimination of .25 to .75. It should likewise have a percentage of difficulty of 15 to 85. The percentage of difficulty is merely the percentage of those who miss an item.

The use of these two measures in the analysis of an item will indicate whether or not that item needs psychological analysis. It is often very difficult to surmise why students make the kind

of responses they do. At other times, careful study of the wrong responses which have been chosen by the students may give the clue to the nature of the difficulty and whether it lies in the construction of the item or in some lapse in teaching. Because an item appears to analyze badly on one test, one need not reject it if he feels it has real value. When given on another test, it may produce entirely different results. If bad results have been obtained from an item on two tests, it is doubtful whether it should be used again without careful revision.

One value in making an item analysis is the development of a stockpile of good items for use on future examinations. There is, however, a greater value, and the making of even one such analysis will convince most teachers of it—that of showing them what parts of their teaching have been most effective and what parts have been least effective. Unless an examination does this, it does not fulfill its complete function.

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"Education Books," a complete list of publications in the field of education for 1947, appears in the April number of the *Phi Delta Kappan*. This bibliography, which has been prepared annually for the past twenty years by the Education Department of the Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore, was formerly published in *School and Society*. Especially valuable and significant books, selected by the Department with the assistance of more than 200 leading educators throughout the country, are indicated.

## The Need for Leadership Education in Teacher Training

By JAMES R. IRWIN

**L**EADERSHIP is difficult to define. With it, a teacher or anyone else in a supervisory capacity who influences the lives of others may qualify for what we call "success"; without it, a teacher may achieve only the eventual triumph of mediocrity.

Therefore, before attempting to formulate an all-inclusive definition of what constitutes a "leader," one must first recognize the fact that, to classify an individual as a leader, it is necessary to make a detailed analysis of one's basic personal characteristics.

A teacher must possess leadership to carry out the primary function of guiding and directing a group of people engaged in cooperative activity. To arrive at this position of leadership the individual must possess certain fundamental traits of character that set him apart from his fellows. Yet these characteristics that set one apart as a leader must also be sublimated, at times, for the good of the group so that the true leader can be also a true follower when the occasion demands.

While most persons would grant the truth of the foregoing statements in regard to leadership, it is usually true that too few of our teacher-training institutions do little or nothing in regard to this important phase of teacher preparation. Courses are offered in educational principles, practices, methods, philosophy, history, administration, supervision, measurement, statistics, evaluation and all the other myriad subjects presented in an up-to-date school or college of education. However, what about leadership education?

Obviously, leadership education is needed. But where to place it in the curriculum of the teacher-training program? The amount of material to be covered in the training program of the prospective teacher, especially because of state certification requirements, probably precludes an entire course in leadership training. However, some training would be highly desirable. Thus, if a streamlined version of leadership training could be offered the prospective teacher during the time he or she was preparing for future educational leadership, a progressive step would have been introduced in teacher training.



The question naturally arises as to whether or not such a streamlined course in leadership education has ever been tried successfully. The answer is an emphatic *Yes!* Such a streamlined training program was given in American industry during World War II to thousands of employees who were appointed to supervisory and other leadership positions. Could such a program be applied to teacher training? Yes, if the problems were similar and the techniques of industrial leadership training could be modified to fit the professional training of teachers.

In all of the numerous foreman and executive training programs developed by industry both prior to and during the recent war, special attention was given to the problem of developing leaders. The reason for this was simple. Faced with gigantic tasks of producing war materiel, industry needed thousands of new foremen and other supervisory employees. The place to get them was from the ranks of the hourly workers.

Therefore, hundreds of new foremen and women soon found themselves seated at management's table for the first time in their lives. They were expected to begin functioning automatically as leaders, although few of them had had any training along leadership lines.

It soon became apparent that industry had to train its own leaders since it was obvious that the schools had not succeeded, through either necessity or choice, in making these individuals leaders. Naturally, it would be fallacious to blame the American educational system completely for the lack of trained leaders in industrial organizations during World War II. The actual truth of the matter was that the entire country had been lax in leadership training both in school and out, just as teacher training institutions are lax in leadership training in many instances at the present time.

As the result of this lack of specific leadership training, industry during the period of the national emergency established its own training schools. In special conference "classes" thousands of supervisors were trained in the basic fundamentals of their new jobs. As these programs developed, it became apparent that something had to be done to emphasize the quality of leadership in those who were to supervise the actions of other individuals. Therefore, every training program gave special attention to this phase of supervision.

This was the general situation facing industry during World War II. This was an emergency condition, however. Is it fair to believe that this particular condition is analogous to that facing education at all times?

Again, the answer to the foregoing question must be yes. For teachers, like supervisors, do not automatically become leaders. They must be trained. They must have the personal characteristics of leadership shown to them and have these considered in some detail during their training program so that they can begin to develop these qualities.

Graduation from the training college or university does not positively assure the prospective teacher that he or she will be a leader any more than promotion to foreman during World War II guaranteed success in supervision. Thus, training for both the supervisor and the teacher is basically the same problem. Therefore, if the industrial training program in leadership could be adapted to fit the needs of prospective teachers, it would appear that a definite contribution to teacher training would have been accomplished.

Having had experience as an industrial trainer during the recent war and being employed at the present time as an instructor in a university teaching courses in basic principles of education, the writer decided to try the experiment just described.

During World War II, the writer was employed as a Training Instructor, Education Department, Detroit Diesel Engine Division, General Motors Corporation. As a part of the course in Executive Training in Management Fundamentals, more than 500 members of Diesel supervision were given a special two-hour "session" in the characteristics of a good leader. It was from this basic session that the material used in the writer's university class in educational principles was adapted to provide specific leadership training.

Obviously, 500 members of Diesel supervision could not meet at one time if the conference method employed in this training program was to be successfully carried out. Thus, the supervisors were broken down into groups of 25 each who met once a week for consideration of a specific phase of Management Fundamentals. In this case this course lasted twelve weeks, and thus one week was devoted to discussing characteristics of leadership. This was streamlining this phase of leadership training

but proved highly successful. Inasmuch as the entire training program was devoted to producing better supervisors, it was felt that one week being devoted to a consideration of qualities of leadership would be sufficient. This proved to be the case after the session was concluded.

Every member of each group of supervisors was asked to name one specific characteristic of leadership, and these were listed on the board so that the picture of a "perfect" leader could be obtained from each group; then, by comparing the lists made by the various groups, a final statement of what members of Diesel supervision felt to be the "perfect" leader would be determined.

In order to promote interest in the idea of a "perfect" leader in each group, the problem was approached by building up in a human form the perfect leader-supervisor. It was mutually agreed that leadership itself was the fundamental characteristic of good supervision; therefore this was placed on the board in the form of a circle to provide the head of the prospective "perfect" leader.

Next, one characteristic was to stand for the body, two for the legs and two for the arms, ten for the fingers and ten for the toes, or twenty-five in all. Thus, as the leader went around the group and got one characteristic from each supervisor present, he drew the figure roughly on the board until the "perfect" leader-supervisor was drawn. During the course of the drawing of this figure, each member of the group was given an opportunity to explain what was meant by this particular leadership characteristic so that the group had not only a figure, a list of qualities, but, more important, a description of what these characteristics stood for to each member of the group.

Eventually, each of the 500 supervisors had supplied one basic personal characteristic of a leader. Naturally, there were numerous duplications in 500 characteristics. Therefore, the training instructor combined these into one consolidated list, and at the beginning of the next week's session these were given to the supervisors on a mimeographed sheet and they were asked to indicate which of these characteristics they felt to be of first importance, second, and so on until a final list of 25 personal traits of a perfect leader was established.

When the final list of 25 was established, the results were again mimeographed and distributed to all Diesel supervision. How-

ever, it was apparent even before the conclusion of the original session that it might be difficult to remember 25 characteristics. Therefore, plans were made in the original session to present one simple method of remembering the most important leadership characteristics immediately after the human figure of the "perfect" leader was determined in each group.

This method was the use of a "key" word that could be easily recalled to mind and would make the principal leadership characteristics stand out more clearly.

The key word was "FOREMAN." Using this as a standard and letting each letter stand for one of the 7 most important characteristics of the 25 listed in each group, the Diesel supervisors had the fundamental essentials of a good leader summarized in a way that few would ever forget.

As the Diesel supervisors finally worked out their key word based on the 7 most important characteristics of the final 25 listed by all groups, FOREMAN was made up as follows: *Fairness; Observation; Reliability; Enthusiasm; Managerial ability; Adaptability; Neatness.*

The final list of 25 leadership characteristics from which these 7 were taken had been ranked in the following order of importance in the opinion of the 500 members of Diesel supervision whose tenure in this executive capacity ranged from one to thirty years: Dependability; Honesty; Initiative; Adaptability; Ambition; Fairness; Character; Observation; Reliability; Loyalty; Judgment; Enthusiasm; Managerial ability; Neatness; Salesmanship; Courage; Sincerity; Self-confidence; Resourcefulness; Self-control; Courtesy; Tact; Imagination; Sense of humor; and Sincerity.

Having had a highly successful session with these 500 supervisors, the writer felt that a similar session with teachers in training would also prove effective. The opportunity to conduct a class of this same type occurred during the 1947-48 academic year in two beginning classes in Principles of Education, University of Detroit.

One class was composed of 65 students ranging in academic status from second semester sophomores to graduate students, while the second group of 34 students covered the same spread, plus one instructor from the Modern Language Department taking the class for a public school teaching certificate. This



provided a group that was large enough in number to get a diversified opinion as to personal characteristics looked for in a leader. In addition, the age level ranged from the early twenties to the middle forties and while this was not as great a spread as the Diesel supervisors, some of whom were in their sixties, it allowed some basis of comparison.

At no time was it the intention of the author to make this a scientific experiment trying to reach specific comparisons between industrial supervisors and prospective teachers. Instead, it was an attempt to adapt a teaching technique that had proved successful with established leaders to a group of potential leaders who were undergoing a similar type of training in the specific quality of leadership.

The classes at the University of Detroit were conducted in the same manner that the Diesel supervisors' training program had been presented and the results were interesting. The qualities that the 100 students listed differed, naturally, from those listed by the industrial supervisors, for, after all, each group was looking for somewhat different characteristics in a leader based on somewhat different leadership situations. However, there is a great deal of similarity in the 25 characteristics picked by the college students when compared with those of the industrial supervisors, proving that human beings, in general, undoubtedly look for the same general type of personal characteristic in a leader regardless of where that leadership exists.

The 25 characteristics listed by the 100 University of Detroit students in their order of importance were as follows: Enthusiasm; Patience; Teaching ability; Trustworthiness; Adaptability; Character; Honesty; Sincerity; Energy; Resourcefulness; Poise; Tolerance; Sense of humor; Open-mindedness; Progressiveness; Understanding; Sociability; Perseverance; Appearance; Flexibility; Initiative; Judgment; Self-confidence; Courtesy; and Tact.

The key word used in the university class was TEACHER which was composed of the following 7 characteristics in the opinion of the 100 students: Teaching ability; Enthusiasm; Adaptability; Character; Honesty; Energy; Resourcefulness.

Undoubtedly, other characteristics would be listed by other groups of teachers either in-training or in-service but with the use of the key word, TEACHER, each individual in any group of teachers or prospective teachers is in a position to list in a

graphic method those 7 qualities of leadership that are most important to that particular person. The attention of the teacher has been focused on those qualities that go to make up that all too elusive quality "leadership" which each must have if successful instruction is to be carried out.

The value to this particular approach to the problem is that it is simple and yet readily recalled in the future. It is a method that centralizes the attention of any group, whether teachers, supervisors or any other persons, on the fact that personal qualities of character are needed to be a leader. It allows each person in a group to express an opinion as to what he or she considers the one main characteristic to be and then gives them a chance to select the 7 most important at which they can aim. Obviously, one cannot remember 25 or more leadership qualities but 7 characteristics associated with a key word like TEACHER or FOREMAN will make it stand out in memory for future use.

Another advantage to this method of presenting the material is the fact that it not only allows for individual expression of opinion with a selection process taking place through the use of the key word but also allows for visualization through the medium of constructing the figure on the board, which seems to serve the best results if limited to 25 characteristics as previously explained. Again, the technique described could be readily adapted to fit classes on the secondary and elementary levels for leadership is not confined to industrial supervision or teacher-training institutions.

The other important thing that could be utilized from this session is that it can be adapted to fit the varying needs of the training class. For example, the writer spent two-hour periods on it in a three-hour course that meant three times a week, one hour at a meeting. It could be readily covered in one meeting of a two-hour class convening once a week or it could be expanded to fit a four-hour class meeting twice weekly for a two-hour session. The instructor can streamline the technique or can spend a longer period on it as desired. The important result in the author's experience is the fact that it focuses attention on the problem of quickly considering yet also remembering the basic qualities needed by any leader in any profession.

The need for leadership training is important. Since time considerations usually preclude spending an entire course on this topic, it can be expeditiously handled in the manner just described.

## The Priesthood of Christ as Embodied in the Liturgy

By A SISTER OF ST. JOSEPH

**L**ONG before the coming of the Redeemer, the prophets David and Malachies had foretold His priesthood—an eternal priesthood suitable to the infinite dignity of Him to whom the sacrificial act is offered. Long had His people been obliged to content themselves with lesser sacrifices, imperfect and indeed negligible in themselves, acceptable only because of the condescending mercy of the Almighty. But there was to be a day when a glorious, new Priesthood, a new Sacrifice—a clean Oblation—would end the stern era of holocausts of rams and bullocks and of libations poured out, and in a perfect, an infinite way, would give to the infinite and outraged Creator His full meed of worship, of thanksgiving, of propitiation complete, and would knock at the portals of Omnipotence with an infinite prayer.

During His public life, our Saviour designated this office as the purpose of His coming—for the redemption of man and the perfect Sacrifice to God, though distinct, were destined to be coincident in one supreme act. The awesome scenes of the Cenacle and Calvary fulfilled the promise of Our Lord's great Oblation, the one in anticipation, the other in dread consummation. But only in the liturgy of Holy Church is the eternity of His priesthood perceptible on earth. Only in the Mass is there a perfect earthly replica of that eternal Calvary continuously offered to the Father by Christ in heaven.

The Church in her liturgy makes it preeminently clear that Christ is the Mediator and High Priest through whom all access to the Father is had. In His name she addresses all her prayers to God. The chief of her sacramentals, that holy sign of our faith, is an acknowledgment of the mediation of Him who, for us and for our salvation, embraced the cross. All the sacraments likewise have their efficacy through His saving mediation to the Father for us. But it is in the perfect Sacrifice of the New Law that we apprehend the strictly priestly character of the Godman.

Through sacramental consecration, it is true, Christ has appointed for His Church individuals chosen from among men for

those offices which pertain to God, and these men are true priests, recalling "in memory the precept 'Hoc facite' which perpetuates the mystery and actuates the memorial of our Lord's Passion." But, in a deeper sense, the Priest at Mass is Christ Himself, offering through His representatives, the renewed Oblation of Calvary. Saint Mechtildes saw in vision Christ Himself, in glorious human form, offering the sacred Sacrifice, assisted by St. John the Baptist, St. John the Evangelist and the queen of heaven herself. Saint Gertrude saw Christ sacrificing Himself under the form of a lamb. But this is beyond need of insistence. The ordained priest, "by a striking identity of power," becomes at the great sacrificial moment verily another Christ.

I often wonder if students assisting at the Holy Sacrifice think of themselves as praying to Christ primarily, instead of thinking of Christ as praying for us in the Mass to His Father—Christ on our side, praying with us, the Father receiving the prayer. For Christ in the Mass is busy with an infinite affair. In His created nature, He is fitted to be the Subject of the Sacrifice, the divine nature, in personal union, lending infinite efficacy and dignity thereto. Here He offers to the Creator, on behalf of man, an act of worship truly worthy of Him. For all the sweet gifts of God to His children, Christ says "Thank you" in the infinite language our childish lips cannot frame. He explains to the Father our overwhelming sorrow for sin, as only the lips of the Godman—divine Lips that tasted vinegar—can express sorrow. And the gift of propitiation which He offers for us is so grand, so infinitely lovely, that the Father is constrained to accept It with joy, and to mark the debt superabundantly paid. So chants the Church, "*Apud te propitiatio est . . . . copiosa apud eum redemption.*" Christ's Sacrifice is, moreover, one of petition. He who knows our wants so much better than we can guess them—especially "our desperate spiritual need"—asks the heavenly Father for all that we require. The true Mediator, He asks with unabashed urgency for gifts for others. One may so urge when the giver is an intimate and affluent friend, and generously disposed. So Christ offers the infinite and perfect prayer to fill up the infinite abyss of our inadequacy.

But the Mystical Christ offers the sacrifice and with Christ, the Head, the members are co-offerers. Hence holy Church in her liturgy is notably partial to the first person plural. "When the



offertory of the bread has been made, the personality of the priest vanishes, to yield place to the 'Mystical Body.' The 'I' effaces itself before the 'we' throughout the rest of the Mass until the Communion——." Here, at a new Calvary, she takes her station. And not only is she a bystander, but each member is an active participant in the offering. The faithful, by the grace of divine adoption, share in Christ's priesthood, not in the heretical sense of the expression "universal priesthood," but in the way St. Paul indicated when he called them a "chosen generation, a kingly priesthood," and in the way St. Peter designated them "a holy priesthood, to offer up spiritual sacrifices, acceptable to God by Christ Jesus." They join with Him, therefore, confident in His company, in the ineffable act of adoration, thanksgiving, propitiation and impetration. Poor and wretched as we are of ourselves, we may yet make to God this transcendent Offering. "The grace of divine adoption," observes Abbot Marmion, "which makes us brethren of Jesus and living members of His Mystical Body, gives us the right of appropriating to ourselves His treasures so that they may be accounted as our own by Himself and His Father." And he quotes, in support, the words of St. Paul, "You know the grace of Our Lord Jesus Christ, that being rich He became poor for your sakes; that through His poverty you might be rich." He is, then, "our riches, our thank-offering."

Then, too, as Christ is at once Priest and Victim, His Mystical Body must also become subject of the sacrifice. The individual member not only shares in His priesthood, offering Himself, but is a co-victim simultaneously offered. Thus prays the Church, "In spiritu humilitatis suscipiamur a te, Domine," and the devout Christian may here subjoin that complete surrender of will, of affections, of efforts, of all his hopes and joys and aims, in short, of his whole being, a surrender which is indeed worthy of the name oblation. Those who are less endowed with grace, or less generous, may make proportionate offerings, according to their ability, although, of course, the reservation will have its consequences. And as Christ, the Victim, suffered in order that our infinite Sacrifice might be possible, is it impractical to suggest that at every Mass the faithful member of His Mystical Body make suitable offering of the mortifications and trials and sufferings, be they ever so small, which he has endured or expects to endure for Christ either since his last attendance at Mass or

until his next attendance? But in this respect it is not in the individual's offering of himself that his oblation need alone consist. As he offers himself in virtue of his union with Christ by grace, he may make the same offering of all the Church. He may offer all the seraphic love of a St. Theresa or a St. Francis Xavier, all the apostolic zeal of a St. Paul or of a Theresa of Lisieux, all the gentle words and deeds of kindly men—of a Philip Neri, a Francis de Sales, a Peter Claver or Benedict Joseph or Camillus of Lellis, all the heroic, frightening penances of a Rose of Lima, a Peter of Alcantara, a Paul of the Cross, all the godliness of the lesser saints all encouragingly about us. To say the least, if he offers himself with these, it will be in a "goodly company"—and are we not united?

Another thought, perhaps a little loosely akin, suggests itself here. What about those creatures that are not of the Mystical Body? Of course, strictly speaking, it is only through union with Christ's offering that our own is acceptable. But cannot we please God by offering in desire all His creatures? Man is a microcosm, and, in his highly complex makeup, bears something of kinship to every other order of beings. He has material existence in common with the inanimate creation, this, plus life, in common with the vegetative, these, plus sentiency in common with the brute, and spirituality in common with the angel hosts. Is he not, then, in an enviable position for offering to God the praises of all these, His creatures? (Is it unlikely that Christ does this, too?) And, in the case of the irrational creatures which cannot give God a willing worship, cannot man, with his strange community of predicates, gather them all into the act of his will, and give them, thus vicariously, a share in voluntary praise of God? The liturgy, and the writings of the saints, while not supporting this point specifically, are not alien to its spirit. Thus the royal psalmist repeatedly called upon all created beings to render their praises to the name of the Lord. And he goes from the heavenly hosts all the way down to the big cedar trees and the little snow-flakes. "*Laudate Dominum de coelis!*" or again, "*Laetentur coeli, et exultet terra!*" And did not the three children call upon all of God's works to bless His holy name, in the inspired canticle "*Benedicite omnia opera Domini, Domino!*" Did not likewise the gentle saint of Assisi strain at the boundaries of his nature and long to give the very birds and fishes intelli-

gence that they might appreciate the word of God? And what did God do about that? He was not displeased, certainly, at any rate. Witness likewise the "Canticle of the Sun" wherein the saint, sensing a community which he dignifies with the names sisterhood and brotherhood, calls on all the irrational creatures of God to join him in praise.

So if we think to offer the sunlight shining on grasses of a score of greens, the moonlight lavishing diamonds on snow or fountain, the wild seas tossing frothily in circumscribed tremendousness, the cleansing fury of flames, the bright lightning, surprising the dark world, or the important thunder, awkwardly tumbling down the arches of the sky and grumbling with no good-nature whatever; if we think to offer the shy, furry things of woodland and meadow, of mountain and valley, the graceful creatures of the sea, and the tender, winged musicians of ridge-pole and treetop, if we offer the happy art of song, the wistful minstrelsy of harp and lute, the sincerity of cello and organ, the gay rhythm of ballad and sonnet, and the ring of mighty rhetoric, may not all this be some tiny part of our share in the great Priesthood? Cannot students think to offer all these things?

In the Mass, the Sacrifice is consumed. Christ is received by the priest and the people. This "is the counterpart of the communal self-oblation whereby the worshippers gave themselves to God. God in His turn invites these pardoned worshippers to sit down at the Family Table, the 'Table of the Lord'." This is the completion, the consummation of the priestly act of Christ. By it is perfected the most wonderful union possible between Christ and the soul on earth. And can a man who has once fervently partaken of this Food ever again be merely what he was before? Aside from sundry renegades who must be in the minority, will not the average pupil now enter upon a life closer to Christ? He seemed so anxious to bring about this union, coaxing us so pathetically to receive Him, offering inducements, as if the mere opportunity were not overpoweringly enough, and then resorting to the heart-broken threat, "Nisi manducaveritis!"

But the sacrifice of the Mystical Christ ought to include the consummation of the sacrifice of the members. The Little Flower finds a way. In her account of her first Holy Communion she writes, "We were no longer two. Theresa had disappeared like a drop of water in the midst of the ocean. Jesus alone remained."

But such a climax of love is not actually possible for all. Nevertheless, all may achieve in desire, by God's grace, what they cannot achieve in actuality. And if we wish to know how pleasing to God are holy desires, we have but to observe His displeasure at unholy ones.

There is another aspect of the priesthood of the Mystical Christ which we may be allowed to consider in this writing. It is that the more we realize our common participation in the priesthood of Jesus Christ Himself, the more we should sense a bond of unity with all those who offer the Mass with us. The bald-headed man by the radiator, fingering his beads, the fat lady behind him, trying to keep the baby's hands away from the intriguing pate, the beshawled parcel of foreigners in the third row, clucking occasional, dilute kisses at the Blessed Virgin, the hurrying sexton with his collection baskets and obtunded genuflections, the quiet nuns with the inevitable missals, they are all in this, and so are we. We are all united in Christ. We are in His Oblation, His worship, His Thankoffering, and if, as St. Thomas tells us, "The Sacrament was instituted in order to give spiritual nourishment by uniting us to Christ and His members," the implications are tremendous.

One caution we must observe: "Consideration of ourselves as sharers in the Sacrifice and of the celebrant as Christ's and our official representative at the altar must not make us lose sight of the fact that, behind the screen of appropriate and beautiful rites and ceremonies, One Alone is Principal Actor, One Alone is essentially the Priest—Jesus Christ." Holy Church stresses this in the sacred liturgy, and it is a thought of paramount importance. "*Per Dominum nostrum Jesus Christum*" is the closing cadence of her every prayer. In two notably striking parts of the Mass, the liturgy emphasizes the attributes of the invisible Offerer. They are the "*Gloria in Excelsis*," wherein Holy Church lauds "Our Lord Jesus Christ the only-begotten Son" who alone "art most high." The prayer might continue "and who therefore art alone our fitting Priest before our God." The priest, signing the Host thrice with a cross, says, "*Per ipsum, et cum ipsum, et in ipso, est tibi Deo Patri omnipotenti omnis honor et gloria.*" Therefore His is "the only voice that arises from the world and reaches the throne of the Divine Majesty, His the only speech eloquent enough to move Heaven—He alone is our Interpreter, our Advocate, our Priest."



# The Catholic University Research Abstracts\*

## A Definition of Meaning for American Education

By REV. ARTHUR ANTHONY HALBACH, Ph.D.

This study undertook to present, classify, and criticize the various theories of meaning that appear in American psychological and educational literature. It was assumed that this examination would discover both negative and positive criteria for a more comprehensive definition of meaning. Such a definition would represent not so much an original viewpoint as an integration of those elements from the given concepts of meaning against which no philosophical and/or experimental arguments have prevailed.

The only genuinely experimental theory of meaning was developed by Titchener of Cornell University. His definition was broad enough to embrace all variants of experimental definitions of meaning found in traditional American psychology. According to the noted context theory, meaning consists in the relating or accrual of mental processes (context) to a central group of sensations (core). Moore's reaction-time experiments showed that Titchener's mental processes were not the true fundamentals upon which these relations are erected.

Dewey has been a prominent advocate of the modern philosophical approach to the problem. Cognizing the proper relationships between a given isolated fact and a larger environment or context constitutes meaning in the system of the pragmatist. For him, meaning, viewed as a mental activity, partakes of the nature of judging. However, Dewey's theory suffers for the lack of an adequate epistemology, resulting in the substitution of meaning for knowledge.

Scholastic writers have attended more to the problem of knowledge than of meaning. Dr. Moore has brought forth interesting data in support of the scholastic explanation for the origin of ideas.

On the constructive side, this study accepts the element of

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\* A limited number of these published doctoral dissertations is available in the office of the Catholic University Press, Administration Building, The Catholic University of America, Washington 17, D. C.

cognized relationships as fundamental to the nature of meaning. It finds, however, that a theory of knowledge is essential to a theory of meaning, since only knowing can furnish the fundamentals for such relationships. When based upon a sound theory of knowledge, Dewey's definition of meaning is found acceptable as far as it goes. An *essential* meaning added to Dewey's *functional* meaning seems to provide an adequate concept of meaning. Lastly, the important distinction between knowledge and meaning proposed in this study is applied to the teaching of arithmetic, reading, and religion, to indicate several educational implications.

#### A Comparative Study of a Seminary Group and Four Other Groups on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory

By REV. WILLIAM C. BIER, S.J., Ph.D.

This study attempted to investigate the psychological factors which characterize satisfactory adjustment among students for the priesthood. The investigation was limited to a single test, the MMPI, and asked to what extent this test, standardized upon the general population, would prove applicable to the special conditions of life of seminary students and to what extent modifications, in norms and content, might be called for in adapting such a test for use with a seminary population.

Groups of medical, dental, law, and college students were formed to furnish a basis for evaluating the responses of the seminary group. The 924 subjects of the investigation were divided among these five groups.

Vocational groups were chosen which would be as similar as possible to the seminary group, and were matched, as far as possible, on all other variable factors with the seminary group. It was reasoned that after this had been done the differences which still remained could legitimately be interpreted as areas of adjustment specific to the seminary group. It would be in these areas that modification of the MMPI would be indicated in adapting the test for seminary use.

About one-third of all possible differences between the seminary group and the other groups were found to be significant at the .01 level, involving six of the nine MMPI scales. There was, therefore, roughly a two-thirds agreement in adjustment between

the seminary group and the other groups; a one-third divergence.

A special study of the 27 per cent of the population manifesting the best, and the 27 per cent manifesting the poorest general adjustment as measured by the test, revealed that the well-adjusted seminarian differed far more from the poorly adjusted seminarian than he did from the well-adjusted members of the other groups. Personality adjustment thus appeared to be something basic, which, while admitting genuine inter-group differences, tended very largely to transcend the more superficial occupational and vocational lines. Hence, it was concluded that the MMPI would serve as an instrument for testing psychological adjustment to seminary life, since it was found to accomplish in this respect substantially (taking two-thirds agreement as substantial) the same function for the seminary group as for the others.

Finally, an item analysis was undertaken to specify in more concrete and helpful terms the adjustment specific to the seminary group. The differences in adjustment which served to set the seminary group apart from the other groups appeared largely susceptible of explanation in terms of the presence in the MMPI of items which presumably did not apply to a seminarian in his way of life, or else had an almost completely different meaning for him than they did for the members of the other groups. It was suggested that such items might more profitably be eliminated in adapting the test to seminary use because their retention, while contributing nothing toward the differentiation of the well-adjusted and poorly adjusted seminarians, tended by reason of their relative frequency to create for the seminarian an atmosphere of remoteness and artificiality harmful to the effective operation of the test. A rejection of items as unsuitable on a more inspection of their verbal content was repudiated, but criteria were drawn from the results of the investigation which would serve as guiding principles if it were desired to modify the content of the MMPI in adapting it for use with seminary groups.

## College and Secondary School Notes

### Cardinal and Chicago Mayor Pay Tribute to DePaul University on Golden Anniversary

His Eminence Samuel Cardinal Stritch, Archbishop of Chicago, and Mayor Kennelly of that city paid tribute to DePaul University for its "outstanding contribution" to Chicago as the university opened its golden anniversary.

DePaul "has helped mightily to keep awake a social religious conscience, which is the bulwark of our freedoms and our social sense of the dignity of man," the Cardinal declared at a Solemn Pontifical Mass in the university church.

"The beginnings were humble," he said, "and in the ensuing struggle to realize a great noble ideal, often the ideal seemed hopelessly larger than the means at hand. Courageous souls were not daunted, and from out of the struggle DePaul University is today the largest Catholic university in the world."

Mayor Kennelly paid tribute to DePaul at a civic luncheon in the Palmer House which also featured congratulatory addresses by Franklyn Bliss Snyder, president of Northwestern University, and Bishop William D. O'Brien, Auxiliary of Chicago and DePaul's first graduate (Class of '99).

"DePaul University has always played an important part in the cultural, academic, and spiritual life of Chicago," the mayor told more than 1,000 persons attending the luncheon. "In the past 50 years it has served the educational needs of 100,000 citizens, many of whom might not otherwise have had the opportunity to obtain a college education."

He expressed his "deepest appreciation to this splendid institution for the outstanding contribution it has made to the progress and welfare of the community."

### College Students Opened Second Drive to Aid Scholars in War-Needy Lands

The second national student relief campaign sponsored by the National Federation of Catholic College Students for the benefit of needy students in war-devastated countries, was inaugurated October 1, it has been announced at national headquarters by Louis J. Burns, Jr., of the University of Notre Dame, campaign chairman.



Mr. Burns said it is expected that 156 member colleges of the NFCCS will participate together with the majority of the 58 remaining Catholic colleges in the United States. This represents more than 225,000 American Catholic college students, Mr. Burns added. He said the 1947-48 campaign netted more than \$200,000 for foreign student relief.

Archbishop Richard J. Cushing of Boston, Episcopal moderator of the NFCCS, is honorary chairman, and Miss Ethel Dignan, a graduate of Mundelein College, Chicago, executive director of the campaign.

#### **Notre Dame Professor Elected to Post by Chemical Organization**

Dr. Kenneth N. Campbell, professor of chemistry at the University of Notre Dame, has been chosen chairman-elect of the Medicinal Chemistry Division of the American Chemical Society.

During World War II Dr. Campbell cooperated with the Government in a search for more effective anti-malarial drugs, and has continued his research in the Notre Dame laboratories since the war in cooperation with the United States Public Health Service. He currently is conducting an extensive research program on the development of drugs useful in the treatment of cancer and is directing research work on several fellowships in drug chemistry sponsored by leading pharmaceutical firms.

As a result of his election in the Medicinal Chemistry Division, Dr. Campbell will be in charge of the next symposium in medicinal chemistry of the American Chemical Society which will be held in June, 1950.

#### **Other Items of Interest**

Ground was broken last month for the new Ateneo de Manila, known as the West Point of the Philippines, according to word received from the Philippine-Jesuits. The former site in the old city will be abandoned, and the new university will rise six miles east of Manila in the Marikina Valley.

To be erected under the supervision of the Rev. William Masterson, S.J., president of the Ateneo, the new university will house high school, college departments, and graduate schools of law and medicine. With more than 12 buildings and an athletic stadium planned, the approximate cost is estimated to be \$3,000,000.

Msgr. Francis J. Furey, rector of St. Charles Seminary, Overbrook, Pa., blessed the newest LaSalle College campus classroom building, Benilde Hall, named for the Christian Brother recently beatified by Pope Pius XII. Prior to the dedication, members of the 86th graduating class attended a Baccalaureate Mass in the Church of the Holy Child, Philadelphia. Graduation exercises were held in the evening.

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His Excellency, Most Reverend Edward F. Hoban, S.T.D., Bishop of Cleveland, blessed September 20 a new fifteen-room school building, with latest developments in flexibility, accoustical effects, lighting, and visual-aids accommodations, at Gilmour Academy, Gates Mills, Ohio. Gilmour Academy, a boarding and day high school for boys, is conducted by the Brothers of Holy Cross, Notre Dame, Indiana.

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The Rev. Alfred J. Zanolar, C.P.P.S., a science professor, has taken office as the eleventh president of St. Joseph's College, Rensselaer, Ind. He succeeds the Rev. Henry A. Luck, C.P.P.S., who resigned recently because of ill health. The new president, a native Indianan, has served as head of the department of natural sciences at St. Joseph's since 1946. He studied at the University of Chicago, Fordham, and the Catholic University of America.

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The Reverend Pius J. Barth, O.F.M., president of the Franciscan Educational Conference and professor of education at DePaul University, was named chairman of the department of education to succeed the Reverend Joseph G. Phoenix, C.M., recently appointed dean of DePaul's Downtown College of Liberal Arts.

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Msgr. Patrick J. McCormick, rector of the Catholic University of America, is among ten distinguished members of the clergy and laity who received honorary degrees at the University of Ottawa on October 14.

Monsignor McCormick received an honorary doctorate of laws. The same degree was given to Archbishop Maurice Roy of Quebec and Francisque Gay, French Ambassador to Canada. Archbishop Alexander Vachon of Ottawa, chancellor of the university, conferred the degrees.

## Elementary School Notes

### New Classrooms Designed to Accommodate Shifting School Population

Portable, but permanent, classrooms are being planned for new schools in Seattle, the American Public Works Association reports. Under the building designs contemplated, one or more classrooms may be moved at a time from one part of the city to another to take care of eventual population shifts.

Built as separate units, classrooms will be attached to either side of masonry corridors which extend from a non-transportable central unit housing offices, heating and plumbing plants, and perhaps an auditorium and lunchrooms. Designers say that the initial cost of the movable unit is approximately half that of a conventional classroom, and that the expense of transporting it across town would be about \$500.

### Yearbook Portrays Status of Elementary School Principal

Presented in *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, the 1948 Yearbook of the NEA Department of Elementary School Principals, is a composite picture of the typical principal in the elementary schools of the United States.

The typical principal is largely a statistical invention brought to life by summarizing and averaging personal information on 1,400 supervising and 400 teaching principals. According to this study, the "typical" supervising principal of an elementary public school is a man forty-six years of age with a master's degree and twenty-four years of education experience, and who draws a salary of \$3,622.00. The average teaching principal is a woman forty-three years old, with a bachelor's degree and twenty-one years of experience. Her salary is \$2,578.00.

This "portrait" becomes more significant when it is compared with a similar study published in 1928. Most noticeable is the greater amount of college preparation that today's principals have had. In 1928, 54 per cent of the elementary school supervising principals had no degrees, 30 per cent had A.B. degrees, and 16 per cent had advanced training. In 1948, there were only 4 per cent without degrees, 29 per cent with A.B.'s, 64 per cent holding M.A. degrees, and 3 per cent with Ph.D. degrees. While in 1928, 80 per cent of the teaching principals were without

degrees, approximately 20 per cent had A.B.'s and less than 1 per cent had higher degrees, in 1948 only 14 per cent had no degrees, 47 per cent had A.B.'s and 28 per cent held M.A. degrees.

#### **Organizations Prepare Materials for Use in Education Week**

American Education Week again offers unlimited opportunities to place the panorama of the schools before the people of the nation, and to engender citizen participation in securing needed improvements.

Various national organizations and associations have cooperated in preparing materials designed to assist local groups in developing the theme of Education Week, "Strengthening the Foundations of Freedom," as well as the topics designated for each day: Sunday, November 7th, "Learning to Live Together"; Monday, November 8th, "Improving the Educational Program"; Tuesday, November 9th, "Securing Qualified Teachers"; Wednesday, November 10th, "Providing Adequate Finance"; Thursday, November 11th, "Safeguarding Our America"; Friday, November 12th, "Promoting Health and Safety"; and Saturday, November 13th, "Developing Worthy Family Life."

A health brochure and a radio script have been supplied by the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation; a radio script on fire prevention by the NEA Commission on Safety Education. New among the materials available this year are "Fact Sheets" prepared by the Research Division of the NEA. These give information on the above-mentioned daily topics for use by speakers and reporters.

All materials and information regarding the same may be secured from the National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

#### **Cleveland Schools Inaugurate Intensive Program of Parent Education**

A parent education program on child development will be launched in five elementary schools of Cleveland, Ohio, this year. While some experimentation with parent education has been done, this venture is probably the first full-blown project of its type in the United States.

Students will be parents of five-year-olds in kindergartens; instruction will be aimed at developing in parents an understanding of child growth and needs. The program is also ex-



pected to give parents a better understanding of school policies, procedures and practices. Directing the project is Ralph E. Crow, Head of Adult Education in Cleveland, and William Levenson, Assistant Superintendent in charge of elementary schools.

#### **Chicago PTA Unit Investigates Behavior Problems**

Behavior Problem Number One among children in Chicago neighborhoods is their use of profane and obscene language, according to 43 per cent of 2,697 parents responding to a PTA questionnaire. Questionable comic books and movies were cited as the primary problem by 30 per cent of the parents, and conduct of children in theaters and on streets late at night were of first concern to 25 per cent of the respondents. Returns from the questionnaire are not as yet complete. Eventually, the Chicago Parent-Teacher Association hopes to hear from all its 120,000 members in order to learn where to start on its next delinquency campaign.

#### **Released-Time Program of Religious Instruction Resumed in Rochester Diocese**

Nearly 28,000 Catholic pupils of public elementary and high schools throughout the Diocese of Rochester resumed, with the opening of the present scholastic year, their regular program of religious instruction on a released-time basis. This announcement was made by Rev. Albert H. Schnacky, Diocesan Director of the Confraternity of Christian Doctrine, in clarifying the legal status of the diocesan program.

"Despite the April ruling of the United States Supreme Court in the Champaign, Illinois, school case, there has been very little change in the picture of our diocesan program of instruction for children in public schools. The national controversy has barely touched New York State," declared Father Schnacky.

Admitting that a group of New York City Freethinkers has brought suit in the New York Supreme Court, demanding an official prohibition on released-time instruction both in and outside New York City schools, Father Schnacky stated, "Our parish programs are operating with the approval of the State Superintendent of Schools whose legal counsel holds that the New York State released-time privilege is perfectly legal and may continue. Only two communities in the whole diocese have

asked that the religious classes be moved out of the school building."

On the national scene, following the Supreme Court ruling, many states have forbidden religious instruction in public school buildings. Vermont, Kansas, Michigan and Illinois have completely cancelled all instructional programs on school property. New York, California, Indiana, Maine, Minnesota, Virginia, Pennsylvania and other states still permit public school children to use school hours for religious instruction provided such instruction is given off school property.

#### **Action of Berlin School Authorities May Jeopardize Existence of Private Schools**

The Communist-controlled school administration of Berlin has threatened to close down forcibly one Catholic and six Protestant private schools on the ground that they were opened "illegally."

Both Protestant and Catholic authorities have appealed to the Allied Kommandantura in order to restrain the city from adopting measures which would not only run counter to the letter and spirit of the law recently adopted but which are obviously meant to destroy all private schools. The success of such measures would force parents to send their children to public schools under the influence of elements hostile to religious education.

#### **Fight Against Comics Gains Momentum**

Fighting the comics is gaining more power as a national movement. A number of comics book publishers have launched an effort to clean up their publications after Captain William Murphy, a Washington, D. C., police officer, warned them of the deleterious effects "horror and crime" stories were having on youngsters.

The effort of the industry to police itself will be apparent within the next six weeks when "approved" comics books will carry a star insignia on the front cover, stated the *Washington Post*. To earn the star of approval, the comics book must live up to a standard of ethics which has been devised by the Association of Comics Books Publication in New York.

The standard of ethics calls for toning down lurid covers, cutting out stories of women criminals and pictures of nearly nude women, according to Philip Keenan, president of the Association. In addition, the Association has asked several leading

educators and public figures in New York to serve on a committee to decide what is acceptable for comics books, Keenan said.

Of the nation's thirty-five publishers who print approximately sixty million copies of 300 various comics books each month, sixteen have already joined the Association and are abiding by its decisions.

#### NEWSBITS

Illiteracy is at its lowest point in United States history. Only 2,800,000 Americans over fourteen years of age cannot read or write. This is 2.7 per cent of the total population of this age group. In 1870, the illiteracy of those beyond the age of fourteen was 20 per cent.

. . .

More than 4,000 boys and 6,000 girls were registered in the Catholic schools of Hong Kong for the fall term of 1948. To handle the overflow, the Maryknoll Sisters are reopening the Island School which has not been used since the recent war.

. . .

Again the Treasury Department of the United States is offering free teaching aids to educators in order to assist them in the important task of training young citizens to be financially competent. These materials can be secured from the Education Section, United States Savings Bonds Division, Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.

. . .

The annual Newbery Medal for "the most distinguished contribution to American literature for children" published in 1947 was awarded to William Pene Du Bois for his production, *Twenty-one Balloons*.

Roger Duvoisin was the 1948 recipient of the Caldecott Medal given annually to the illustrator of the year's most outstanding picture book for children. His illustrations in *White Snow, Bright Snow* merited this distinction for Duvoisin.

## News from the Field

### The Catholic Commission on Intellectual and Cultural Affairs

The Catholic Commission on Intellectual and Cultural Affairs was organized in the United States of America on June 23, 1946, to meet certain Catholic intellectual and cultural needs both on the national and international level.

It endeavors to bring together a broadly representative group of Catholics, particularly among the laity, who are members of the various learned professions, creative artists and writers, and leaders of Catholic opinion, in order that they may come to know one another and may have the opportunity to consult together. Architects, Doctors, Lawyers, Musicians, Poets, Professors, Scientists, Writers—all are represented on the Commission. In the present membership, northern, southern, eastern and western sections of the country are represented and more than thirty-six fields of scholarly activity are included. Members are drawn from more than fifty important intellectual and cultural institutions, such as the University of California, California Institute of Technology, The Catholic University of America, Chicago, Columbia, Cornell, Fordham, Georgetown, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, Marquette, New York, Notre Dame, Ohio State, Pennsylvania, Princeton, Saint Louis, Stanford, Texas, Virginia, Wisconsin, and many others together with research institutions like Bell Telephone Laboratories, Institute for Advanced Study, National Bureau of Standards and others.

The Commission endeavors to focus attention on Catholic intellectual and cultural life at home by encouraging interchange of ideas and by developing a consciousness of solidarity among Catholic leaders and thinkers scattered through the United States. This is being accomplished not only through meetings of the entire Commission, which are held at least once a year, but also through regional meetings and various committee meetings which are held more frequently. Thus, for example, the Commission recently took up the problem of *Secularism in American Intellectual and Cultural Life*. Attention was directed to the responsibilities and the problems to be encountered by Catholic faculty members and students at both secular universities and colleges and Catholic universities and colleges, in seeking to alter this



secularist climate of thought. First the problem was submitted in outline form to the members of the Commission for their consideration and suggestions, then it was submitted to a half-dozen regional committees for study and report, and finally it was discussed by the whole Commission at its most recent Annual Meeting.

The Commission strives also to promote Catholic intellectual and cultural cooperation in the world at large and in collaboration with similar groups in other countries to work for a truly Christian life and for a just and peaceful world order. The Commission is in constant contact with similar Catholic organizations in Europe, particularly in Italy, France, Belgium and England. Thus the Commission participated with the representatives of twenty other nations in the inauguration at Rome in April, 1947, of the Catholic International Movement for Intellectual and Cultural Affairs and continues as a charter member of this Movement. (Mouvement International des Intellectuels Catholiques de Pax Romana.)

In cooperation with War Relief Services, the Commission has undertaken to find teaching opportunities in American Universities and Colleges for Displaced Scholars now in the D.P. camps of Europe. On-the-spot investigations and personal interviews with the D.P. Scholars, the collection of factual data, and the facilitating of arrangements for immigration and transportation, are services to American colleges which, thus far, have produced results in finding many places for these Displaced Scholars.

The Commission through its members is actively interested in UNESCO. It has not hesitated to point out the materialism and false philosophical implications in a pamphlet entitled, *UNESCO, Its Purpose and Its Philosophy*, published under the name of Julian Huxley, Director General of UNESCO.

However, the Commission is primarily a cooperating and coordinating agency and operates only in areas where no other Catholic agency is willing or competent to undertake a specific task.

The Commission is governed by an Executive Committee of nine members and is served by an Executive Director. The central office is in Washington, D. C., from which a good part of its work is carried on by correspondence. At the present time, all service to the Commission is voluntary and on a part-time

basis. Its membership is selective and relatively small, including at present only one hundred and thirty well known men and women. Provision is made for a larger body of Associates and for Founders, Benefactors and Sponsors.

There seems to be general agreement that the Commission meets a definite need in the United States and has great inherent possibilities for good. It enjoys the encouragement and approval of the Bishops of the United States. Initial funds for the undertaking have been supplied, largely by some ninety Catholic Colleges. There are many hurdles yet to overcome. The work of organization must be continued, additional financial support must be found and adequate personnel for effective operation must be recruited.

EDWARD V. STANFORD, O.S.A.  
*Executive Director.*

#### **Minimum Qualifications for School Bus Drivers Threaten Safety of Children**

Although the bus driver plays the most important role in the safety and efficiency of school transportation, there is much leniency in state requirements concerning his qualifications to transport children to school.

The National Commission on Safety Education has found the following to be among "the most lenient requirements": in one state, children fourteen years of age may legally operate school busses; thirty-nine states have no maximum age for school bus drivers; twenty-two states prescribe no definite experience which a person must have before operating a school bus; thirteen states have no requirements concerning the character of a prospective school bus driver, and nineteen states provide no special license for school bus drivers.

#### **First of German, Austrian Scholarship Winners Arrive**

The first five of 28 German and Austrian winners of scholarships awarded by the National Catholic Welfare Conference have arrived in this country and are now at their respective new campus homes.

They are Ernst Haindl, co-founder of the Students Section of the Austro-American Society in Vienna, who will go to the

University of Notre Dame; Peter Brusenbauch, who won a tour of Italy in an oratorical contest sponsored by the Austrian League for the United Nations and will enroll in Xavier University, Cincinnati; Elmer Neunteufel, who will attend St. Thomas College, St. Paul; Elizabeth Mayr-Harting, bound for Chestnut Hill College, Pa., and Friederike Dolezal, who will go to Webster College, Webster Groves, Mo.

The N.C.W.C. Youth Department and Department of Education are supervising the program, which offers a year of study in this country to German and Austrian students who show leadership capabilities. Individual colleges are furnishing board, tuition and fees, while transportation and other expenses have been provided by the Bishops of the United States and the National Federation of Catholic College Students. The Institute of International Education is responsible for the administration of the program.

#### **Judge Rules Against Catholic Nun-Teachers in Dixon Case; Final Decision Due in November**

District Judge E. T. Hensley has issued a ruling in the Dixon Church-State case "generally in favor of the plaintiffs," who seek to bar Catholic Religious and Catholic-owned schools from the public school system of the state.

What is specifically unconstitutional in the use of Catholic teachers and classrooms by the New Mexico educational authorities will be decided sometime after November 7, when Judge Hensley issues his final decision.

In making his ruling, which was in the form of a declaratory judgment, the judge commented that the "ringing of a bell" does not constitute the wall of separation between Church and State in the public school that the recent McCollum decision of the U. S. Supreme Court requires.

This was a reference to the testimony of several Sisters who admitted teaching catechism in the public schools in which they were employed, but who said that they taught it from 8:30 to 9 a. m., before the regular school day began.

Judge Hensley also remarked that the wearing of religious garb by public school teachers might not alone be unconstitutional, but that in this case, which involves 30 schools in eleven New Mexico counties, it was found in the midst of many sectarian influences.

The trial was an outgrowth of friction in the town of Dixon, where a part of the community resisted efforts to hire Catholic Sisters as teachers in a new public school. Mrs. Lydia Zellers of Dixon, two Protestant ministers, and 25 other individuals were the complainants, and 200 persons, including Catholic Sisters, Brothers and priests, and state and local school officials, were the defendants in the case.

Aiding in the preparation of the plaintiffs' case was E. Hilton Jackson of Washington, D. C., representing the Protestants and Other Americans United for Separation of Church and State. Charles Fahy, former United States Solicitor General, was one of the attorneys for the defendants.

Among those who testified in the closing days of the trial was Mrs. Gail Barber, state elementary school supervisor and a non-Catholic, who declared that many improvements in New Mexico's schools were due to Sisters, that they do not teach religion during school hours and are under the same control as other teachers. When she was a teacher, she said, she had to use a Protestant church as a school structure.

#### News in Brief

A letter from an army chaplain to his cousin in Erie, Pa., has started one of the oddest of European relief projects—a collection of pencils to be given 140,000 children in Austria.

The Rev. Bernard K. McDonald, M.S.S.S.T., serving as chaplain in the Lan Upper Austria Area, wrote his cousin, Charles A. Dailey, to tell him that pencils were one of the greatest needs in his area—"and I must have them by Christmas." Mr. Dailey enlisted the aid of two other cousins, the Revs. Robert B. McDonald and William D. Smith, and together the three men are getting children of the diocese to collect all the loose pencils they can find.

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St. Philip Neri parish school in the Bronx, New York, recently completed at a cost of \$900,000, was dedicated October 5 by His Eminence Francis Cardinal Spellman, Archbishop of New York. The ceremony was held in conjunction with the observance of the golden jubilee of the parish. Monsignor William R. Kelly, former New York Archdiocesan Superintendent of schools, is



pastor of St. Philip Neri Church. The new school has a capacity of 900 pupils.

The 50th anniversary of the founding of St. Patrick's Seminary in Menlo Park, Calif., which numbers an Archbishop, 11 Bishops and 647 priests among its alumni, was celebrated on September 23 by the clergy and September 26 by the laity.

Miss Frances N. Douglass, Negro Catholic educator and sociologist, who has been sworn in by Mayor O'Dwyer as a member of the New York City Board of Higher Education, has taught at several Catholic colleges, and helped set up the Catholic Conference on Industrial Problem's Interracial Office. Establishment of this office developed from a seminar on Negro problems in the fields of social action called by the N.C.W.C. Social Action Department in 1946. Miss Douglass was one of the delegates at the seminar.

A special study unit on the wartime disabled veteran for high school civics classes has been prepared by the Disabled American Veterans and is available without charge on request.

Inquiry should be made to the National Public Relations Department of the DAV, Room 2801, 11 S. La Salle St., Chicago, Illinois.

Religious-education classes for public school children began in Champaign, Ill., last month under a revamped arrangement to satisfy the U. S. Supreme Court's ruling in the McCollum case. The classes will be sponsored again by the Champaign Council on Religious Education, but will be held after school hours and off school property.

Sisters of the Holy Cross have purchased the former Stone estate in Boston for use as a resident and day school for girls. Plans call for a four-year high school, but freshmen only will be enrolled for the present academic year, it was announced.

Principal of the new school is Sister M. Canisius, a former dean of women and professor at Dunbarton College, Washington, D. C., and missionary in India for nine years.

## Book Reviews

**The Driving Forces of Human Nature and Their Adjustment**, by Dom Thomas Verner Moore, O.S.B., Ph.D., M.D. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1948. Pp. viii + 461. \$6.50.

This book is well described by its sub-title: "An Introduction to the Psychology and Psychopathology of Emotional Behavior and Volitional Control." While it contains much material from the author's *Dynamic Psychology*, this too has been revised and re-interpreted in the view of later research.

There are seven parts to the book: (1) Historical Introduction, with emphasis on American psychology and a special section on the history of the Department of Psychology at the Catholic University, (2) Consciousness and the Unconscious, in which is found a very good evaluation of some of the Freudian concepts of these, (3) Human Emotional Life, (4) Psychopathology of Emotional Life, (5) The Driving Forces of Human Nature and Their Adjustment, (6) The Will and Voluntary Action and (7) The Problems of Volitional Adjustment.

In each section the author brings the reader up to date on the contributions of empirical research which he interprets well in the light of sound philosophical principles.

While treating the subject-matter of the field as extensively as possible in any one book, Moore makes every effort to keep his style intelligible and interesting even for those with little experience in the field. He does not, however, for their sake eliminate from discussion some important topics which cannot be dealt with without the use of technical terms and concepts.

This is one of the truly great books of our time. It epitomizes the fruits of many years of most qualified study of a field which requires many-sided specializations for its mastery. The author, priest, mathematician, physician, psychiatrist and linguist, has given us such a work as he alone, in our day, could write.

Chapter 34, Adjustment of Man to God in the Supreme Social Order, has the ring of a *nunc dimittis* by one who feels that he has done his best and wishes to rise up from the solid base he has established to higher things.

F. J. HOULAHAN.

The Catholic University.

**Shakespeare's Use of the Arts of Language**, by Sister Miriam Joseph, C.S.C. New York: Columbia University Press, 1947. Pp. xiv + 423. \$3.75.

**The Trivium in College Composition and Reading** (3rd ed. rev.), by Sister Miriam Joseph, C.S.C. South Bend, Indiana: McClave Printing Co., 1948. Pp. xii + 306. \$2.50.

**College Composition and Reading**, by Sister Miriam Joseph, C.S.C. South Bend, Indiana: McClave Printing Co., 1948. Pp. x + 64. \$0.85.

The first book listed above is divided into two parts. In the first part Sister Miriam Joseph presents in great detail "the general theory of composition current during the Renaissance . . . and the illustration of Shakespeare's use of it." It is her contention that the theory of composition prevailing in Shakespeare's day . . . "accounts for those characteristics of Shakespeare's language which differentiate it most from the language of today, not so much in the words themselves as in their collocation. The difference in habits of thought and in methods of developing a thought results in a corresponding difference in expression principally because the Renaissance theory of composition, derived from an ancient tradition, was permeated with formal logic and rhetoric, while ours is not." In the second part (it seems to function, we might say, as a very long appendix to the first part) she presents "a reconstruction, essentially complete, of the general theory of composition and of reading current in the Renaissance as it is embodied in the extant sixteenth-century English texts on logic and rhetoric."

The second book might be described as a practical handbook applying the notions she has surveyed in the first book to the teaching of English in the early years of college (actually it was apparently in use before the writing of the first book). As she says, "this book, together with a collection of Western World literature, provides matter for a coordinated course in introductory English reestablishing the trivium in the study of composition and literature, somewhat as it was exercised in the grammar schools of sixteenth century England and continental Europe."

The third book is a separate printing of Chapter XI of *The Trivium* preceded by a few pages from Chapter I. It is printed separately to serve as a textbook for classes in composition.

There can be no criticism of the basic intelligence and the detailed work exhibited in these books by the author, but there can be serious question of the adequacy of the author's view of the Renaissance. The following statement would seem to be an instance of such inadequacy: "One of the conclusions to which the present study leads is that in the works of all three of these groups of Renaissance writers there is a fundamental likeness despite obvious differences, for in all of them are discernable, to a degree not hitherto adequately recognized, the dominant features of Aristotle's rhetoric." This statement (and it is representative of the orientation of the three books) seems, to this reviewer at least, to be seriously misleading. Renaissance rhetoric and poetic are not Aristotelian; the rhetoric is Ciceronian and the poetic, Horatian (and not pure Horatianism). The fact of Aristotle's being used by Renaissance writers is in itself irrelevant, no proof that the statements mean the same thing to them that they meant to him. To see the clarities of Aristotle through Renaissance theory is, I am afraid, not to see them clearly. Certainly throughout the three books the author offers us both a definition and a classification of poetry that is neither Aristotelian nor adequate to the purposes of criticism or art.

So far as the restoration of the Trivium is concerned, let us say only this: It is perfectly true that the difference between Shakespeare's language and contemporary English is the difference between a man with a tradition (in part a tradition of formal logic and rhetoric) and men divorced from such a tradition; but the removal of this difference, even in the matter of "the arts of language," is a problem much broader than "reestablishing the trivium in the study of composition and literature, somewhat as it was exercised in the grammar schools of sixteenth-century England and continental Europe." What is more, if even part of the problem is one of reestablishing the trivium, why choose as a model the trivium in its most decadent period? We are here, from one point of entry, at the heart of the matter of civilization, and a solution of the problems involved requires more wisdom and scholarly insight than these books manifest.

WILLIAM J. ROONEY.

Department of English,  
The Catholic University.



**How Shall We Pay for Education?** by Seymour E. Harris. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948. Pp. x + 214. \$3.00.

In this book, an economist looks at the crisis in education and offers some suggestions for its solution. It is an argument for federal aid to education, particularly to institutions of higher education. It also presents a brief treatment of the financial plight of elementary and secondary education. On the college level, the conditions of both private and public institutions is discussed.

The book is a worthwhile contribution to the field of educational finance. It is straightforward and objective, its interpretations and recommendations being based on up-to-date factual evidence and a sound understanding of economics. Unlike many books on educational finance, it is unusually free of attempts to justify a demand for more adequate aid for schools by unnecessary and distracting philosophical flag-waving. Dr. Harris, however, does not assume that increased material resources alone are the cure-all of education's ills. His perspective in treating the crisis in the field is economic, and to this he is consistently faithful. The presentation is largely statistical, and the language is rather concise. Because of these two factors, the author's exposition seems to presume greater understanding of economics than most professional educators possess.

Dr. Harris sees the solution to the problem of finance in higher education in government spending, which postulates more government funds for the purpose. Such funds need not necessarily demand increased taxes. For one thing, government needs to reevaluate the relative importance of services on which it spends public money, and, on the basis of this, reallocate funds more in accord with the worth of things. By the same token, private individuals need to consider seriously the disproportion in their spending for luxuries and for education. The discussion on private expenditures for education, which is concerned not so much with expenditures by private institutions but rather with expenditures by private individuals for their education, is a unique feature of the book. The author decries carrying the principle of democratization too far in education and cites the GI bill as a case in point. To make higher education more democratic and more accessible for the intellectually gifted but financially poor, he suggests a multi-price tuition system, which,

in spite of the objections of some college administrators, he claims will work and will enable colleges to raise tuition to the point where it will contribute around three-quarters of the total cost of private institutions as compared with one-half now. Considering the fact that our colleges are now producing graduates in numbers out of proportion with available job opportunities for college graduates and that our college graduates are not an adequate sampling of the intellectual talents of American youth, the suggestions of Dr. Harris regarding policies of admission to higher education are deserving of serious attention.

JOSEPH A. GORHAM.

Department of Education,  
The Catholic University.

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**Letters to a Nun**, by Daniel A. Lord, S.J. St. Louis: The Queen's Work, 1947. Pp. 399. \$3.50.

The reverent and paternal affection for nuns which prompted the writing of this book is evident in every page. The intention of the volume is impeccable; its execution is less so. The letter device, while providing a frame for the author's interesting reminiscences and allowing for an agreeable informality of treatment, nevertheless, introduces the note of impersonality which is the inevitable characteristic of the "circular" or "carbon-copy" letter.

Practically every topic concerning the formation and convictions of religious is treated within the 399 pages of the book. Compared with the rich "meat" usually given religious by spiritual writers, Father Lord's treatment is "milk," nourishing, but not satisfying. The geniality and charity of the writer, however, induces us to end, "Thank you, Father; write again."

SISTER M. FRANCIS ASSISI, C.S.A.

Marian College,  
Fond du Lac, Wis.

## BOOKS RECEIVED

*Educational*

Dickey, Frank Graves: *Developing Supervision in Kentucky*. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky. Pp. 95. Price, \$0.50.

Kirksen, Cletus, C.P.P.S.: *Economic Factors of Delinquency*. Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Co. Pp. 94. Price, \$2.00.

Horn, Gunnar: *Public-School Publicity*. New York: Inor Publishing Co., Inc. Pp. 226. Price, \$3.50.

Johnson, Wendell, Ph.D., and Others: *Speech Handicapped School Children*. New York: Harper & Brothers. Pp. 464. Price, \$3.00.

National Catholic Educational Association: *Proceedings and Addresses Forty-fifth Annual Meeting San Francisco*. Washington, D. C.: National Catholic Educational Association. Pp. 645. Price, \$1.75.

School Libraries Institute: *Exploring the Possibilities of Centralized and Cooperative Services for Diocesan School Libraries*. Portland, Oreg.: University of Portland. Pp. 65. Price, \$1.50.

Yoakam, Gerald A., Ph.D., and Simpson, Robert G., Ph.D.: *Modern Methods and Techniques of Teaching*. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 435. Price, \$3.60.

*Your School District*. The Report of the National Commission on School District Organization. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association. Pp. 286. Price, \$2.00.

*Textbooks*

Betts, Emmett A., and Welch, Carolyn M.: *Teacher's Guide Book. Primer Reading Program*. New York: American Book Company. Pp. 64. Price, \$0.40.

Betts, Emmett A., and Welch, Carolyn M.: *Study Book for Preprimers*. New York: American Book Company. Pp. 80. Price, \$0.32.

Betts, Emmett A., and Welch, Carolyn M.: *Teacher's Guide for Initial Reading Program*. New York: American Book Company. Pp. 80. Price, \$0.40.

Celeste, Sister Mary: *The Old World's Gifts to the New*. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 484. Price, \$2.00.

Cronin, Rev. John F., S.S., Ph.D.: *Catholic Social Action*. Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Company. Pp. 247. Price, \$3.50.

Ellard, Rev. Gerald, S.J., and Gleason, Rev. John R.: *Power. The Supernatural Powers and Helps Conferred on Man*. Chicago: Loyola University Press. Pp. 346. Price, \$1.60.

Embree, Edwin R.: *Peoples of the Earth*. New York: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge. Pp. 74. Price, \$0.75.

Healy, Edwin F., S.J., S.T.D.: *Marriage Guidance*. Chicago: Loyola University Press. Pp. 411. Price, \$3.00.

Pittaro, John M.: *Episodios Historicos*. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. 94. Price, \$0.96.

#### General

*The Spiritual Exercises of St. Ignatius of Loyola*. New York: Catholic Book Publishing Co. Pp. 190. Price: \$2.00.

Thomas, Sister M. Evangeline: *Footprints on the Frontier*. Westminster, Md.: The Newman Press. Pp. 400. Price, \$5.00.

Wilcox, Sister Catherine Joseph, S.P., M.A.: *A Study of the Reflections of the Peace Proposals of Pope Pius XII in the Writings of David Lawrence*. Milwaukee, Wis.: Marquette University Press. Pp. 95.

#### Pamphlets

Corrigan, D.J., C.S.S.R.: *How to Become a Catholic*. Liguori, Mo.: The Liguorian Pamphlet Office. Pp. 31. Price, \$0.10.

Gough, Rev. Joseph F.: *Our Lady of Fatima*. Four Radio Talks. St. Paul, Minn.: Radio Replies Press. Pp. 24. Price, \$0.15.

Lovasik, Rev. Lawrence G., S.V.D.: *Clean Love in Courtship*. St. Paul, Minn.: Radio Replies Press. Pp. 71. Price, \$0.25.

Rumble, Rev. L., M.S.C., S.T.D.: *Baptists*. St. Paul, Minn.: Radio Replies Press. Pp. 36. Price, \$0.15.

Rumble, Rev. L., M.S.C., S.T.D.: *This Way to the True Church*. St. Paul, Minn.: Radio Replies Press. Pp. 30. Price, \$0.15.

Rumble, Rev. L., M.S.C., S.T.D.: *Why You Should be a Catholic*. St. Paul, Minn.: Radio Replies Press. Pp. 32. Price, \$0.15.

Schuyler, H. C., S.T.L., L.L.D.: *After Calvary Christ's Passion in His Church*. A play in five episodes for amateur production. New York: The Paulist Press. Pp. 46.



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